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LYMAN ABBOTT
Editor-in-Chief

HAMILTON W. MABIE
Associate Editor

THEODORE ROOSEVELT
Contributing Editor

R. D. TOWNSEND
Managing Editor

The Senate Passes the Tariff Bill

Nearly five months after the special session of the Sixty-third Congress was called together to consider the Underwood Tariff Bill, it passed the Senate, on Tuesday of last week, by a vote of 44 to 37. As it had already passed the House of Representatives in a somewhat different form, it now goes to a conference between committees of the two houses for final adjustment. No great difficulty is anticipated in conference, and the general prediction is that within two weeks, or possibly even less, the bill will be laid before the President, and undoubtedly it will be signed by him. The almost universal comment immediately after the passage of the bill by the Senate was one of sincere congratulation to President Wilson, and in only less degree to Mr. Underwood and Senator Simmons, who have led the fight in the two houses. Every one knows that the President's personal influence in the matter has been the prime factor in the situation; the Democratic party has placed itself solidly behind him, and there has been, in many cases, an unprecedented waiving by individual members of Congress of local interests and contentions. President Wilson's own comment upon the passage of the bill was this:

> A fight for the people and for free business which has lasted a long generation through has at last been won, handsomely and completely. A leadership and a steadfastness in counsel have been shown in both houses of which the Democratic party has reason to be very proud. There has been no weakness or confusion or drawing back, but a statesmanlike directness and command of circumstances.

To this he added his hope and belief that equal energy, directness, and loyalty would be exercised in currency legislation. The only breaks from party lines shown in the Senate's vote were that the two Louisiana Senators, Mr. Thornton and Mr. Ransdell, moved by their State's hostility to the provision providing for free sugar in the future, voted against their Democratic colleagues, while Senator La Follette, who may be classed as an Independent Republican, and Senator Poindexter, Progressive, voted in favor of the bill. Mr. La Follette declared that he was driven by an impelling sense of righteousness to help cancel the Payne-Aldrich Law, which he described as little short of a crime, while he regards the present bill as in the main reasonably protective. Senator Poindexter's view is much the same, but with emphasis laid upon the value of the income tax feature. As the bill passed the Senate it retains all the principal provisions for which President Wilson has contended: free wool, free sugar in the near future, free meats, an income tax, and greatly reduced rates on a long list of articles. The free list is extensive. Among the more important points in which it differs from the House bill, and upon which agreement must be had, are: the proposed tax on cotton "futures," which has been criticised widely as not belonging to a tariff law but as being in the nature of a "rider;" the changes in the silk schedules; the increase in the tariff on works of art, which is distinctly unfair and undesirable; and the increase in the income tax rate for incomes above fifty thousand dollars, which is open to wide difference of opinion according to one's theory of just taxation and according also to one's estimate of the total amount of revenue which must be raised.

What Will Follow?

What will be the effect of the tariff law, soon to be signed, on the welfare of the country's industries? Time and the test of its practical working only can answer. It may at least be said that the Democratic party as represented in Congress has shown solidarity. What it has done is what it set out to do. Now the reason that the Payne-Aldrich Law was a party disaster to the Republicans was that it did not do what the party promised to

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do. The Republicans four years ago, and the Democrats to-day, declared that the tariff needed downward revision with a view to helping the consumer, encouraging American competition, and sustaining industry. The Republican theory was largely lost sight of in the clash of contending interests; the Democratic theory has, for the most part, been put into law. Whether the result is sound is legitimately open to question, as we believe every general tariff law must be. Unless the revision is made schedule by schedule there is bound to be injustice to individual industries, because the theory is that the general benefit will outweigh individual interest. How any human power can make sure that this is so unless the individual cases have been weighed and decided after a careful study of all the facts, collected and presented by an impartial and scientific tariff commission, we cannot see. This uncertainty as to what the bill will do is illustrated by the wide difference of opinion between Democratic leaders in House and Senate as to whether or not the Senate's amendments will or will not produce income enough for the Government's needs; practically no one knows.

A Congressional Election in Maine

What in England would be called a by-election has occurred in Maine. On Monday of last week, in the district formerly represented by James G. Blaine, a Representative was chosen to succeed a Republican Representative who had died. The voting resulted in the election of the Republican candidate, Mr. Peters. The interesting thing about this election is that all three parties, Democratic and Progressive as well as Republican, seem to be content—the Democrats because their vote was somewhat larger than that of the Presidential election, though less than that of the Congressional election last year; the Republicans because their vote was about double that of the Presidential vote, though not nearly so large as that of the Congressional vote last year, when there was as yet no division in the party; and the Progressives because this was their first Congressional election in the State, and, in spite of the fact that not only the Democratic candidate but also the Republican claimed to be as progressive as the Progressives, the new party polled over six thousand votes. There was every effort made on the part of the Democrats to secure a large Democratic vote as an indorsement of the new Administration, and, though the Democratic candidate was defeated, many Democratic leaders expressed special satisfaction at the size of the vote he received. On the other hand, both the opposing parties point to the fact that, although the Democrats asserted that the stream of opinion was flowing toward the Democratic view of the tariff, the combined votes of the opposing parties, both of which advocate the protective principle, exceeded any protection vote which even this traditionally protection district had on record in Congressional elections. Since all the participants in this election seem to be satisfied, there is no reason why the country at large should not be satisfied too.

The Sulzer Case in Court

After nearly a month, during which New York State has suffered from the uncertainty involved in the attempt of two men to act as Governor, a court ruling has been obtained against Governor Sulzer and in favor of Lieutenant-Governor Glynn. The case under which this decision is made was that of Joseph S. Robin, the notorious convict imprisoned for violating the banking laws, who was pardoned by Governor Sulzer for the purpose of making a test of his authority. The warden of the penitentiary in which the man was imprisoned refused to honor the pardon, and Robin's lawyers instituted habeas corpus proceedings. The argument before the Judge in behalf of Governor Sulzer was that the pardon should be honored because Governor Sulzer was in fact Governor, inasmuch as the Legislature had no right to impeach him, since they acted during an extraordinary session called exclusively for other purposes, and inasmuch as Governor Sulzer, even though impeached, was not yet convicted, and therefore suffered no disability to act as Governor. On the other hand, it was argued that the Legislature has a right to impeach at any time without regard to the subject on which it is called into special session to legislate, and that the Constitution of the State provides that as soon as the impeachment is brought the impeached Governor shall cease to act as Governor until he is acquitted. On both these points Judge Hasbrouck has decided in favor of Governor Sulzer's opponents. He declares that in bringing an impeachment the Legislature acts not in a legislative capacity but with judicial

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power; that the Assembly is the Assembly whether in regular or extraordinary session, or whether self-convened; that in the exercise of its power it is beyond the let or hindrance of the Executive or of the Court; and that therefore the Governor has been lawfully and constitutionally impeached. There remains, then, the question whether the impeached Governor is by the Constitution deprived of his function as Governor. That question turns upon the meaning of the word impeachment in the Constitution. Does it mean accusation or conviction? Judge Hasbrouck decides that there is no doubt about the meaning of the word. "It is," he decides, "the method of procedure in a criminal case against a high official." If it means this, the Constitution provides that upon accusation of the lower house of the Legislature, the Governor is rendered powerless to exercise his function as Governor and his place must be taken by the Lieutenant-Governor. The Judge points out that according to the Federal Constitution the President is not ousted by impeachment, and therefore the presumption of innocence is undisturbed; but that under the State Constitution this fundamental rule that a man is presumed innocent until proved guilty is evaded. This provision in the State Constitution, in the opinion of the Judge, "seems an unjustifiable and unreasonable provision, for delay in the prosecution to the end of the term would work the same result that judgment of removal would, and delays in such proceedings have been known to be long." As an illustration of this the Judge cites the impeachment proceedings against Warren Hastings, which lasted thirteen years. Nevertheless, though it may be unjust, it is, according to Judge Hasbrouck, the law. It was impossible for any appeal to be argued from this decision before the date set for the beginning of the impeachment proceedings—Thursday of this week. This decision is the law and should be observed as the law until and unless it is reversed.

Canada Deports Thaw

Everything connected with the Thaw case from its beginning seven years ago to the present day has been spectacular. Not the least spectacular episode was the ejection of Thaw from Canada last week. After a long and discreditable legal squabble in the lower Canadian courts, in which an attempt was made to wrest the principle of the habeas corpus writ so as to keep a man in jail instead of to set him free if he were improperly detained, and an equally discreditable attempt to prosecute ex-District-Attorney Jerome on a trumped-up charge of gambling which the hearing magistrate denounced in round terms of apology, the Dominion immigration authorities at last obtained possession of Thaw, and, under the direction of Canada's Minister of the Interior, gave him the hearing accorded by law, decided that he was an undesirable who had entered the country improperly, forestalled any attempt to set the courts against the immigration authorities, seized Thaw's person through its agents, clapped him into an automobile, transported him by practically the same route he came into Vermont, and there set him free. Thaw, according to accounts, acted like the insane person he really is, wandered about from point to point in borrowed automobiles, and finally passed the line into New Hampshire, where he has been taken in charge by the authorities, who will decide, first, whether the criminal charge against him of conspiracy to bribe New York State officers and to break out of Matteawan is an indictable offense; and, secondly, whether, if it is not so, he may be deported as an insane person to the place from which he came. Certainly, if there is not law enough to make at least the second procedure technically right, there ought to be such law in New Hampshire and every other State. It seems probable now that, despite Thaw's wealth and despite his large assemblage of lawyers—he is said to have engaged at least fourteen while he was in Canada—he will again become a prisoner in the place to which he was committed as criminally insane. There is satisfaction in the feeling that the cynics who have so often declared that it is impossible properly to punish a man of wealth will be taught, in this instance at least, that the law is superior to the conspiracy of its bribed and unfaithful servants.

Massacres in the Balkans

Ever since the close of the second Balkan war each of the contending parties has accused the other of almost all the atrocious crimes which both attributed, only a few years ago, to their common enemy the Turk. The Greeks and Servians declare that the defeated Bulgarian armies burned villages, killed children, outraged women, and mur-

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dered innocent non-combatants in cold blood along the whole line of their retreat. The King of Greece describes the Bulgarian soldiers as "monsters" of cruelty, and the University of Athens, in an appeal to the universities of the world, begs the latter to protest against Bulgarian atrocities in Macedonia. The Bulgarians, on the other hand, not only deny the truth of these statements and charges, but accuse the Greeks and Servians of precisely similar crimes. In a cablegram to Mr. Roosevelt, already printed in The Outlook, the Metropolitan of Sofia and representatives of all the Protestant churches say that there are now in Bulgaria "more than one hundred thousand refugees, mostly women and children, who have been driven from their homes by the Greeks and Servians, and whose stories of fearful outrages and butchering will stir the conscience of the civilized world." The University of Sofia, in reply to the appeal of the University of Athens, declares that Greek soldiers have burned and murdered in places where Bulgarian troops have never been, as, for example, in the town of Kukusha, where they drove away the French friars and murdered all the children in a Catholic school. The Sofia University says, furthermore, that captured letters of Greek soldiers to their relatives at home distinctly state that they are acting under official orders to "burn Bulgarian villages and exterminate the whole Bulgarian race." These letters have been photographed, with dates, addresses, signatures, post-marks, and regimental stamps, and copies are now being sent to foreign legations and the correspondents of foreign newspapers. The University of Athens closes its counter-appeal with a request that all foreign universities co-operate, as far as possible, in an effort to bring about an international investigation which shall determine the facts and fix the responsibility for the inhuman acts of which complaint is made.

An Attempt to Investigate

On the 19th of August, upon the initiative of the Carnegie Endowment Fund for International Peace, as already briefly noted in The Outlook, a meeting was held at the Carnegie Bureau in Paris, under the presidency of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, for the purpose of appointing an international Committee of Investigation. The persons selected to serve on this Committee and the countries that they represented were as follows: Great Britain—Dr. H. N. Brailsford, a well-known writer on Macedonia and the Balkans; United States—Professor Samuel Train Dutton, of Columbia University; France—Justin Godert, member of the Chamber of Deputies; Germany—Professor Walther Schucking, of Marburg; Austria—Professor Redlich, member of the Reichsrath; Russia—Professor Paul Milyukof, leader of the Constitutional Democrats in the Duma and an expert in Balkan affairs. The task laid upon this Committee was to investigate, first, the outbreak of hostilities between the allies at the conclusion of the war with Turkey; second, the truth or falsity of outrages reported to have been committed by the combatants, particularly the mutilation of captives, outrages on women, and destruction of private property; third, the economic waste caused by the war between the allies, and its cost. Late in August the Committee thus appointed proceeded to the Balkans and began its investigation, but it soon encountered obstacles thrown in its way by the Servians and the Greeks. The Servian Government declined to co-operate with the members of the Committee, on the alleged ground that Professor Milyukof, the delegate from Russia, was prejudiced in favor of the Bulgarians; and the Greeks objected to both Milyukof and Brailsford for the same reason. Servian students in Belgrade made a hostile demonstration against Milyukof, and Pasitch, the Servian Premier, suggested that the Russian representative should resign. The Committee, however, insisted upon retaining him, and continued its work. A telegram from Salonika, dated August 30, reported that, on account of the hostile attitude of the Servians and Greeks, the Committee had decided to abandon the investigation; but five days later our State Department made a formal contradiction of this and other similar reports, and declared that the work of the Committee was still in progress. It is sincerely to be hoped that the Servians and Greeks will not oppose the Committee, or throw obstacles in its way, merely because they think that one of its members has a pro-Bulgarian bias. Professor Milyukof is one of the ablest statesmen in Russia, as well as a born lover of peace and justice, and he probably knows better than any of his colleagues do the peoples of the Balkan Peninsula and their history. His appointment was made at the suggestion of Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, and the

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ability of the latter to make a proper selection will hardly be questioned in western Europe or the United States. There seems to be no doubt that in many parts of the territory claimed by the various combatants organized bands of soldiers, with or without orders, have committed crimes which are not only disgraceful to civilization but are expressly forbidden by the International Convention of October 18, 1907, relative to the laws and customs of war. It is very desirable, therefore, that the responsibility for such crimes should be ascertained and properly placed by an international committee whose conclusions the world will trust.

Elections in Finland

The most significant feature, perhaps, of the recent elections for members of the Finnish Diet is the increasing strength of the Socialists and the women. Of the newly elected members, twenty-two are women and fourteen of them are Socialists. The Social Democrats now have ninety in a total membership of two hundred, and therefore lack only eleven of an absolute majority. The Old Finns have only thirty-eight seats; the Young Finns, twenty-nine; the Swedish party, twenty-five; and the Agrarians, eighteen. If the Socialists were as strong intellectually as they are numerically, they would probably control the Diet; but most of the capable leaders are in the other parties. The Social Democrats have elected fourteen women and sixteen editors of Socialistic newspapers, but it is doubtful whether the whole thirty, taken together, are strong enough to counterbalance five such men as Svinkhuvud, Castren, Danielson, Shubergson, and Calmari, all of whom are in other political camps. Only about one-half of the members-elect have had higher educational training, and comparatively few of this class are Socialists. In Finland, as in the United States, hundreds of thousands of voters who ought to go to the polls stay at home. The total number of votes cast in the recent election in Finland was only fifty-two per cent of the electorate, while even in Japan the percentage in parliamentary elections is from seventy-one to eighty-eight per cent. When the returns of the Finnish elections shall have been tabulated and analyzed, it will be interesting to know what proportion of the women, as compared with the men, avail themselves of their political rights and discharge faithfully the first and most elementary of their civic duties.

Pierre de Coulevain

The latest issue of the "Journal de Genève" to reach us announces the death of the French writer widely known in this country under the pen-name of Pierre de Coulevain, on the 22d of August, at Lausanne, Switzerland. She was in real life Mademoiselle Favre, a Genevese by birth and originally a teacher by profession. For a woman who had achieved popularity as a writer in France, England, and America, she succeeded in a remarkable way in keeping the details of her private and family life from public knowledge. She was born in 1845, and did not begin to write, at least for publication, until she was over fifty years of age. Her five novels, published in English in this country, are, in the order of their appearance, "American Nobility," "On the Branch," "The Unknown Isle," "Eve Triumphant," and "The Heart of Life." She had lived both in the United States and in England, and her intimate knowledge and understanding of the social and family life of the English are displayed in "The Unknown Isle," which, as a story, is the least pretentious of her books, but is perhaps the most meritorious from a literary and philosophical point of view. She was born a Roman Catholic and died in full communion with that Church; but her mind was a liberal one, and the ideals set forth in her books are ethical rather than those of conformity to creed or doctrine. She was witty without being bitter, gay without being frivolous, and of a simple kindness of heart which gave her a strong sympathy with what is essentially good and attractive in human nature. No writer, perhaps, since Philip Gilbert Hamerton has been so successful as Pierre de Coulevain in interpreting the English to the French, and the French to the English. She was eminently the kind of personality and the kind of a writer for whom the reader feels an individual respect and affection.

The Zeppelin Disasters

The two accidents last week, with loss of life in the one case of fourteen, in the other of two men, to German air-ships do not by any means prove that the Zeppelin type is valueless. On the other hand, there is exaggeration in the official governmental comment that "the disaster in no way diminishes the fighting value of the Zeppelin air-ships." Heavy storms and violent gusts of wind must always endanger such bulky craft. The early

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history of the Zeppelins shows this; accident after accident occurred in getting the great air-vessels in and out of their sheds, and their success, which has undoubtedly been great both for scouting and for carrying passengers, has been helped on by the use of detachments of soldiers to hold the ropes at start and finish. Hitherto there has been, we think, no loss of life, although there have been serious injuries. Meanwhile hundreds of passengers have been carried long distances in comfort and even luxury, and military scouting trips for many hundreds of miles (even, it is said, practically from Berlin to London and back) have had almost constant success. The L1, whose downfall last week cost fourteen lives, was caught in a tremendous storm in the North Sea while on a voyage from the mainland to Heligoland; it fell, buckled, and sank. The Z5 was trying to make its shed-landing at Leipsic with a hundred and fifty soldiers holding the ropes, when a violent gust wrenched her away into the air and two of the soldiers were killed. The disasters may be compared to the occasional explosions of high-power naval guns or to the loss of submarines; the men who die in such cases are doing their duty as soldiers and sailors; their deaths are those of patriots in service; the tragedies are part of the great tragedy of war, and are akin to those that inevitably come in the course of a developing civilization.

Demoralizing Plays

The confusion of ideas as regards morality in plays and fiction commented upon last week in The Outlook in an editorial entitled "An Ominous Sign of the Times" has since had ample illustration in the newspaper discussion of certain plays now on the New York stage. Of one of these plays Chief Magistrate McAdoo (who was prominent in securing the representation in New York of Mr. Bernard Shaw's play "Mrs. Warren's Profession") said:

> I believe the play to be indecent and immoral, and in part gross and revolting, and that it is entirely covered by section 1140 of the Penal Law. The main objections to the play center around the second act, which shows the parlor or reception-room of an illegal place. The more realistic the scene the more offensive. . . .
>
> The play is said to be an exposé of white slavery, and therefore to be used as a valuable preventive against young girls being lured into these traps. This play is said by its defenders to be a sort of moral prophylaxis against the evil it depicts.
>
> We do not need to uncover a sewer to convince people as to its filthiness nor to warn those of ordinary cleanly habits against getting into it.

All decent people will agree in this, and will agree also with Mr. McAdoo that a magistrate should disregard charges of being finical or puritanical, and that he should under his official responsibility answer the question whether a particular play is in point of fact indecent and immoral. Ultimately this is always a question of fact, but a question not to be determined offhand by the subject of the play. For the fact to be determined is not that of subject, but of intent and effect. Even the hideous subjects of prostitution and sexual disease may be, and have been, treated on the stage and in fiction with a noble purpose and without the slightest effect of rousing evil passion or satisfying prurient curiosity. Witness, for example, Brieux's "Damaged Goods," described some time ago in The Outlook; witness, on the other hand, some of the incidents of the "gay" musical comedies in which not an offensive word is said but in which the essential purpose is salacious and dangerous. Who shall decide as to intent is a question hard to answer, but one that must be answered. Certainly the play must be seen, not read about; but whether censor (as in England), or magistrate (as has been the usual custom here), or grand jury (as in the cases now under discussion), is made the final arbiter, the decision must distinguish between that legitimate use of passion and plain-speaking which seriously deals with evil to make it repulsive and a tragic warning, and that use which appeals purposely, and with vile desire to make money, to all that is lowest in human nature. Unless common reports are widely astray, however, the present danger is in erring in being too liberal instead of being too puritanical; the problem must be faced intelligently, earnestly, and with discrimination.

The Nations and the Panama Exposition

The fact that nine nations have declined to participate in the Panama-Pacific Exposition at San Francisco in 1915, while ten others have not yet replied to the invitations issued more than a year ago, is taken by some American newspapers with leanings toward jingoism as evidence that as a Nation we are none too popular with our neighbors. The refusal of England and Germany to send exhibits to the fair espe-

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cially has alarmed those persons who are ever on the *qui vive* for the least sign of impending international complications. There seems, however, to be nothing in the situation at present to justify any uneasiness. Twenty-nine governments have declared their intention of being represented at San Francisco; and, moreover, history shows that nations are wont to use the threat of non-participation in the celebrations of other countries as a lever with which to pry concessions from the government giving the fête. Before the St. Louis Exposition in 1904 England and France for a time seemed determined not to "play in our yard," and, in fact, not till eight months before the inauguration of the ceremonies did England abandon her stubborn attitude. Seventeen months yet remain before the beginning of the celebration of the opening of the Panama Canal, and the Board of Directors in charge of the Exposition are confident that within a year most of the sulkers will change their minds. While the excessive expense of participation in the fair was given by Sir Edward Grey as England's reason for holding aloof, it is believed by many that a feeling of pique in regard to the refusal of the United States to submit the Canal tolls question to arbitration is behind England's refusal. It is noteworthy that Canada, whose shipping interests will be hard hit by our stand on the tolls question, has already announced that she will attend our National party. The Germans have taken little pains to disguise the fact that they are recalcitrant with an aim to force Congress into making certain tariff concessions to the Kaiser's subjects. The movement fostered by the German Socialist press, and by a number of influential German business men led by Herr Ballin, the General Manager of the Hamburg-American Steamship Line, to organize an independent exhibit for our Exposition seems destined, however, to force the German Government to give up the rôle of cunctator. The other nations that have formally given us the cold shoulder are Switzerland, who declares that the patents of her manufacturers are not respected in this country; Russia, who is still nursing the sore received in her bicker with the United States in regard to a commercial treaty; Bulgaria, Siam, Morocco, Servia, and Turkey. "Some of the smaller countries, like Siam and Morocco, hardly ever go in for international expositions on account of expense, but the others will come around if we give them time," is the confident prediction of Mr. Thomas M. Moore, the General Commissioner of the Exposition to the Eastern States.

New Jersey Convict Camps

When the Prison Labor Commission of New Jersey removed thirty convicts from the State's prison at Trenton to a camp in the western part of the State and put them to work upon the public roads, it relieved the congestion that was becoming a menace alike to the health and to the morale of the inmates; but it did more—it demonstrated the practicability of what has been called the "new penology," which is based upon the proposition that it is more important to regenerate a convict and make a good citizen of him than it is to punish him. Before the establishment of the camp, which the prisoners who live therein have christened "Camp Don't Worry," gangs of convicts had been going out of the State's prison every day to work on the roads, returning to their cells at night. The men liked this work, and, when the camp was proposed a few months ago, they jumped at the chance to leave behind the tiresome routine of prison life and live in the open air. They were told that it was "up to them"—that if they behaved themselves their liberties would be increased and other camps would be opened; and it was made clear that assignment to the camp was to be considered a reward rather than a punishment. Three comfortable buildings were erected on a site selected in Sussex County, most of the work of construction being done by prisoners. When at work on the roads and when lounging around their dormitories the prisoners are watched by guards from the prison, but the camp is under the direction of the Department of Roads, which meets the expenses of maintenance, and which will pay each laborer fifty cents a day if the State Attorney-General is able to dispose of a legal technicality that now prevents such an arrangement. In addition to the prospect of wages, which would be put aside by the prison authorities for the families of the laborers, the men have the prospect of a commutation of sentence to spur them on. That this camp is free from the evil features of convict camps in some parts of the Union, namely, the ball and chain, the merciless "driver," and the equally cruel guard armed with a shotgun, is largely due to the abolition of the con-

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tract labor system in New Jersey. So pleased are the members of the Prison Commission with the success of "Camp Don't Worry" that it is planned not only to make the institution a permanent one and to establish two similar camps, but to secure a farm and a quarry to be worked by the prisoners as well. And if the prisoners continue to show that they appreciate that the success or failure of this penal experiment is "up to them," a system of self-government will be introduced and the prisoners will be consulted in regard to the management of the camps.

Can Farmers Dictate Prices?

More than ordinary interest attaches to the action of the National Farmers' Union Convention, which has just undertaken to fix a scale of prices for the sale of farm products. The organization claims to enroll among its membership two million cotton-growers and more than a million producers of grain. It has fixed the price at which cotton is to be sold this year at 15 cents, the present price being 12 cents. In previous conventions attempts to fix prices have lacked a majority vote; this year there was no opposition, and the leaders are enthusiastic over the prospects of uniting the cotton-growers in an ironclad agreement. The organization has also established its figures on the price at which other products are to be sold. Basing its action on the value of the land, cost of production, and allowing six per cent on the cost of land, it declares that the minimum price to pay the cost of production should be, at primary markets: Kansas, Nebraska, and Oklahoma—wheat $1.05, corn 70 cents, oats 45 cents, barley 50 cents; Illinois, Indiana, and Missouri—wheat $1.25, corn 65 cents, oats 50 cents, barley 50 cents; Western slope States—wheat 97 cents, corn 90 cents, oats 50 cents, barley 50 cents. Very easily such action may become one of the most important economic events of this generation, depending, of course, on how many farmers participate in the programme, their influence on world markets, and whether or not they are able to put into practice the theories of their delegates in convention. Attempts to accomplish this have in the past borne but indifferent results. Organizations have been abandoned and pledges have been broken when the individual farmer saw opportunity to better his condition or needed the money. No class of workers is so difficult to control through organization as the farmer, because doubtless of his isolation and his long education in acting independently. The real significance of the new effort lies in the fact that the farmer is beginning to apply the cost system to his work. Manufacturers and distributers long ago learned that only by accounting for every element of cost, including interest on the investment and expense of upkeep, could they hope to make a profit. The farmer has not always kept books; he has guessed at his expense account, and his prosperity has come in spite of his unsystematic methods, because the area of fertile land open to settlement has been limited. When a farmer spends $1.05 to raise and deliver to the elevator a bushel of wheat and receives therefor 82 cents, he is losing money; but he does not realize it until he has accurately accounted for every item of expense that goes into the efficiency of the farm. The average consumer to-day believes that the farmer is receiving more for his products than he ought; the farmer claims that the fault lies with the middlemen, and that actually much of the farm work is done at an economic loss. A recent series of inquiries conducted in Iowa showed that, in the opinion of well-informed bankers, the farmers of that State have been making less than four per cent on their investment. If the farmers' organization can hold its large membership firmly, it may be able to accomplish something in establishing a scale of prices. If it does, it will be the first successful effort of the kind in history.

A Mothers' Day and Municipal Picnic

There have been mothers' days at schools and churches; but a municipal mothers' day and picnic is so unusual as to deserve comment. The city of Boston has set an excellent example of what municipalities can and ought to do in the interests of recreation. The first Mothers' Day and Municipal Picnic, under the direction of Mayor Fitzgerald, promises to become a permanent feature in the city's life. Between fifteen and twenty thousand mothers and children were treated to an outing and entertainment at the beautiful two-hundred-and-forty-acre suburban reservation, Franklin Park. The generosity of electric car companies, private individuals, and business houses yearly provides millions of children throughout urban America with day outings to the seashore and country; but mothers are seldom given such excursions. It was the aim of this novel experi-

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ment to give a day's recreation to "mothers who have not had summer vacations away from the city, and who get few opportunities for such enjoyment of city parks as is planned for this occasion." Churches, organizations, settlements, playground instructors, and police officials were asked to help distribute the five thousand free tickets among deserving mothers, who naturally were expected to take their little ones along. The programme, carefully planned for recreation, included entertainment for both mothers and children. In the first place, there were grassy slopes, blue sky and sunshine, shade trees, and fragrant fresh air in abundance. Orchestras, vocal quartets, hurdy-gurdies, and a brass band, stationed at various points, made merry music throughout the day. There were automobile trips throughout the park and a Punch and Judy show for the children. A story-teller moved from group to group delighting the little ones with fanciful tales. Mothers profited by the talks given by the Milk and Baby Hygiene Association. The special feature of the day was a demonstration of group games, races, folk-dancing, and dramatized stories by about three thousand children from fifty-two playgrounds, at the close of which the service of pledging allegiance to the flag was impressively rendered. The colored insignia of the children and the American flags they carried gave a festive and patriotic touch to the occasion. Democracy was exemplified not only by the mingling of nationalities from the congested districts, but even more significantly by the Mayor's dancing and playing with the children. The need of proper recreation facilities, especially the use of city parks for play, is advocated most enthusiastically by Boston's Mayor. And why should not the parks echo with children's voices and the strains of music? The frequent warnings to "keep off the grass" and not to pick the flowers, the distances of the parks from the congested sections, all tend to keep away the very people for whom they were intended. Such an experiment as this offers many suggestions as to the proper use of parks for recreation by boys and girls, mothers, fathers, and children. Mayor Fitzgerald believes that "the city can do no better service than by providing once a year a day's pleasure in such a place as Franklin Park." The programme goes on to say, "The parks and the playgrounds are two of the several methods by which the city provides recreation for all its inhabitants." The children who dance and play on the pavements, whether of streets or playgrounds, show by their faces and their actions what it means to them to play on the soft turf. The parks, more than they are now, should be used as playgrounds.

WILLIAM JAY GAYNOR

One of the most distinctive figures in the political history of America, William Jay Gaynor, for the past three and a half years Mayor of the city of New York, died suddenly at sea last week. He was seeking a rest from his official duties and from the excitement and strain of an extraordinary municipal campaign. His heart, weakened probably by overwork coupled with physical exhaustion consequent upon the coughing that resulted from the effects of the wound he had received from a would-be assassin three years ago, gave out, and the end came peacefully.

The record of Mr. Gaynor's life is almost as baffling and mysterious as his character. There seems to be no certainty as to the exact date of his birth—not even as to the year. He was a native of Oneida County, New York. His father's name is variously given as Kieran Gaynor and Kendrick Gaynor; and even his own name is said to have been originally not William Jay but William James, though this has been denied. In early youth he was devoted to the Roman Catholic priesthood, and though, it is understood, he took no vows, was "a novice employee" in the order of Christian Brothers. How it happened that he abandoned the brotherhood and even withdrew from the Roman Catholic Church is not generally known. After teaching school in Boston, he went as a lawyer to live in the town of Flatbush, which, as a part of the Borough of Brooklyn, is now within the limits of the city of New York. There he became interested in the town's affairs and began a movement that wiped out illegal resorts. Ten years later he became a resident of the then city of Brooklyn, and there made a name for himself as an opponent of bossism, finally securing the conviction and imprisonment of one of the most corrupt and arrogant men that ever stole elections—John Y. McKane. In the midst of his fight he was elected a Judge of the Supreme Court of the State, and remained on the bench for sixteen years.

As a judge he won a reputation for the individuality of his opinions. Some of his

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decisions reveal a mind well aware of the need for emphasis, in the interpretation as well as the enactment of law, upon social justice. He recognized the right of society to protect itself against the too great liberty of the individual by limiting that liberty, especially in industrial questions. The spirit of these decisions Mr. Gaynor himself interpreted a year ago last May in an address before the Yale Forum. Yet in cases involving public morals Judge Gaynor frequently let society suffer for the sake of preserving the privileges of the individual. Saloon-keepers who broke the law found him more than once a comfort. The personal liberty to commercialize vice, in defiance of the rights of society to protect itself, was given refuge in these decisions. In particular in his court the police were discredited. Thus the man who as private citizen fought the lawlessness of the saloon, as judge furnished the lawless saloon with legal security on the ground of personal liberty, and at the same time in other matters recognized the limitations of personal liberty in the interest of social justice.

Mr. Gaynor's career was full of contradictions like this—contradictions so obvious and so serenely ignored by himself as to make it hard to understand his character.

Four years ago, when public-spirited citizens of New York were undertaking to bring warring political factions together to defeat Tammany Hall in the impending municipal campaign, Judge Gaynor, the reformer and enemy of boss rule, accepted the mayoralty nomination from the most notorious political oligarchy in the country—Tammany Hall—and entered upon a campaign in which he pleaded not only for his own election, but for the election of the boss-named candidates on the Tammany ticket. His nomination had come about largely because of his bitter attack upon General Bingham, the most efficient Police Commissioner New York ever had. In this attack Judge Gaynor, in the name of personal liberty, denounced the very measures which were making the Police Department feared by the criminal enemies of the city. The result was the dismissal of Commissioner Bingham and the election of Mayor Gaynor, but the defeat of Mayor Gaynor's Tammany associates.

The first few months of Mayor Gaynor's administration were marked by such excellent appointments, such unusual vigor of action, and such original methods of dealing with the city government, not merely as a matter of business administration, but as a matter that concerned the individual interest of the lowliest citizen, that the fears of those who dreaded what might happen with a Tammany Mayor in the chair were considerably allayed. Indeed, as The Outlook said at the time, his conduct of the office was such as tended to mortify those who had opposed him. Under Mayor Gaynor the death rate of the city has been reduced, there has been an effective campaign against needless or criminal fires, and the merit system in the administration of the departments has been advanced. Most notable of all of Mayor Gaynor's distinctive achievements, however, was his success in convincing the people of the city that they had access to him, could get his ear, could appeal to him, when they felt that his subordinates were acting unjustly or arbitrarily.

It is this side of Mr. Gaynor's career as Mayor that will probably remain longest in the memory of the city. He was like an Oriental judge at the gate, to whom people with a grievance flocked. His counsel was sought on all sorts of subjects and was given abundantly. How much his counsel was given personally we do not know, but a great deal was given in the form of letters. These letters of Mayor Gaynor's form a permanent record of his relationship to people, of his views on things political, and of his ways of thought. Many of these letters have been gathered together in book form in a volume entitled "Mayor Gaynor's Letters and Speeches," published by the Greaves Publishing Company, New York. We print elsewhere in this number extracts from these letters in order to give to our readers what might be called a portrait of Mayor Gaynor's mind. It is by no means a finished picture, but rather a sketch. Nevertheless, it serves as a likeness. These letters reveal a mind that is original, quaint, homely, curiously simple, and at the same time complex. Mayor Gaynor had an unusual command of the English tongue. His advice on writing which he sent in answer to a question by the New York "Times" is a capital interpretation of his own style: "The trouble with most writers and speakers is that they are all the time 'trying.' Don't try—just write or say what you mean. Naturally you may ornament it a little with nice phrases here and there, but do not try to. If you do, you spoil it. Let your mind be unambitious and content, and then

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you will better express yourself. What is the best way to write things? you ask. Often the best way is not to write them. But if you do, the simple way is the best." Many writers covet Mr. Gaynor's power to find and use simple language.

One reason why Mr. Gaynor wrote simply was that he thought concretely. He had, for instance, occasion to write with regard to the appointment of a member of the Board of Education, and, instead of discoursing on some abstract subject of education, he turned his mind to something that could be pictured and wrote in his letter as follows:

> I am much struck with one remark you make, that hundreds of thousands of our children never see a living wild animal or bird. But I have several times gone much further than that. There are a very large number of people in this great city, larger than most people have any idea of, who have never seen a calf or a pig. We provide wild animals for them to look at, but not domestic animals. If I had my way we would have domestic animals for the people here to see. I am certain that a sow with a litter of pigs would be more intensely interesting to most people than any wild animal. And cow and calf, mare and colt, and so on, would also be most interesting. Is there any natural sight so interesting as a litter of pigs nursing?

This letter is typical of one aspect of Mayor Gaynor's mind.

And yet with this simplicity there was joined a strain of mysticism on the one side and a strain of adroitness on the other. His character might be likened to a building in which the door is wide open, but, as you look in, you find it screened and darkened.

It is not necessary, it is hardly possible, to give a story here of Mayor Gaynor's administration. Two things, however, in that administration stand out strongly. One of these is the management of the police, the other is the management of the subway question.

What the New York police scandal has been the whole country knows. The demoralization of the New York City police force was no surprise to those who had followed Mr. Gaynor's course with regard to the police before he was elected. That this demoralization should culminate in the Rosenthal murder and the Becker case was something that nobody could have anticipated. It is a part of the inexplicableness of Mayor Gaynor's character that he seemed at least to place himself in opposition to those who were uncovering the evil, and that he who had seemed to find it in the line of his duty to thwart the police when they were pursuing criminals made light of the criminal action of policemen themselves. And yet no one believes that Mayor Gaynor in this followed anything but his own convictions.

In relation to the subways Mayor Gaynor's course was also characteristically hard to understand. His radical views with regard to the relation of public utilities to the people were well known before he was elected, and yet as Mayor he advocated the adoption of proposals by the rapid transit companies which the final outcome has proved to have been indefensible from the public point of view.

Finally, this strange man, once the idol of the radicals, then the nominee of the Tammany machine, became the candidate of the anti-Tammany conservatives.

There has been no career in recent American public life that has been so full of odd contradictions and complexities as Mayor Gaynor's, no character more interesting, more baffling, and more distinctive than his.

THE SINGLE TAX

It is hardly an exaggeration to say that twenty-five years ago the term "single taxer" was as odious and terrifying in the rich States of the North Atlantic seaboard as the term "abolitionist" was fifty years ago in the States of the South Atlantic seaboard. The term "single tax" was invented by Thomas G. Shearman, a distinguished New York lawyer, who was an eminent authority on taxation. Henry George adopted it to describe the method devised by him of taxing land values so that the unearned increment, as he called it, shall go to the community which creates it and not merely to the individuals who now reap the benefit.

The single tax theory was first propounded by Mr. George in 1871 in a book called "Our Land Policy," but it received its most famous exposition in "Progress and Poverty," which Mr. George published in 1879. In 1882 Mr. George stumped Ireland, and again in 1884 he made a three months' tour throughout Great Britain, speaking in the principal cities to large audiences and making a strong impression. In 1890 he spent nine months in a trip to Australia and a tour around the world.

What has been the progress of Mr. George's taxation doctrine during the thirty-

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four years since the publication of "Progress and Poverty"?

This question is worth answering because interest in the problem of land taxes is steadily growing. In even so conservative a State as New York, a State in which the land-owning interests are strong and influential, there is a definite movement in favor of increasing the taxes on land and decreasing them proportionately on improvements. In New Jersey also, a rich and conservative State, the mother of corporations, the two prominent candidates for the Governorship within the Progressive party are both appealing for support on the ground that they advocate the taking of the burden of taxation from improvements and transferring it to land values.

Before we endeavor to answer this question it must be pointed out that there is a very widespread error in the public mind regarding the single tax. Many people, perhaps most people who have not looked into the matter, consider that the single tax means the abolition of private property in land. To impose a single tax on land values or ground rent means nothing of the kind, although it is true that Henry George did not believe in private monopoly of land as at present existing and proposed to use the single tax as a method of abolishing it.

It is obvious that ground rent or the unearned increment can be taxed at any rate per cent chosen by the taxing authority. Of course, if the State takes twenty, fifty, or ninety per cent, the individual has only the balance. Mr. Fillebrown, in Massachusetts, and Messrs. Colby and Osborne, the gubernatorial candidates in New Jersey, believe that the single tax can be applied to real estate values in the cities of Boston and Newark in such a way as practically to take taxation entirely from improvements, thus fostering and developing improvements, and yet leaving a reasonable share of the increasing ground rent or land value or unearned increment to the private owners.

We believe it will surprise some of our readers, as it has surprised us, to learn what the progress of the single tax has been in the various parts of the world in the last few years. We are enabled to give this record through information collected, condensed, and arranged by Mr. C. B. Fillebrown, one of the best-known and best-informed authorities on the so-called single tax.

Great Britain has been the last to move, and her first step was comparatively a short one. The Lloyd George Budget of 1909, which finally became a law in 1910, imposed four different taxes upon land, the first and most important of which was the so-called increment value duty. This imposes a tax of 20 per cent upon land increment arising after 1909, payable by the owner when land is sold, leased for more than fourteen years, or transferred at death. Land held by corporate bodies and not changing hands is to pay the tax every fifteen years. To carry the law into effect it was necessary, of course, to provide for a complete appraisal of all the land in Great Britain, in order to determine its value, exclusive of improvements, in the year 1909. This work, which is estimated to cost $10,000,000 and to require five years, is now under way, and it will result in a monumental survey comparable to Doomsday Book.

In the *German Empire* the first of the recent experiments in taxing the increment of land was made in the model German colony of Kiaochau, established in China in 1897. The land and tax ordinance of 1898 imposed a tax of 33⅓ per cent of any increment of value accruing thereafter to private purchasers of lands acquired from the Government, a tax of 6 per cent on the value of land, exclusive of improvements, and a tax on land sales at auction. This ordinance suddenly and unexpectedly realized the German land reformers' programme in a German colony under the direct control of the Imperial Government. It naturally aroused great interest, and soon led to attempts to tax the unearned increment in various German cities. Frankfort and Cologne took the lead, in 1904 and 1905. Their example was rapidly followed by scores of other municipalities, including most of the large cities, until by 1910 the increment tax was in operation in 457 cities and towns and was yielding a substantial revenue. The rates of taxation ranged from 1 per cent to 25 per cent of the amount of the increment.

In 1911 the German Empire introduced an Imperial increment tax. This law imposes a progressive tax, increasing according to the percentage which the increment bears to the original value of the land. The rate is 10 per cent of the increment when that amounts to 10 per cent of the original value, and increases 1 per cent for each additional 20 per cent of increment until it reaches 19 per cent on increments ranging from 170 per

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cent to 190 per cent. From that point it increases 1 per cent for every additional 10 per cent of increment, until it reaches 30 per cent on all increments of 290 per cent and over, with provision for certain deductions. The Imperial tax is intended to unify the taxation of the unearned increment throughout the Empire, and will replace the local increment taxes. To compensate the cities for the revenue thus lost, the law provides that 40 per cent of the product of the Imperial increment tax shall be apportioned to the local governments; while the states are given 10 per cent, and the Empire retains 50 per cent. Authority is granted, however, to impose additional rates for local purposes; so that some measure of local option is retained.

In *Australia* Queensland has already adopted the exemption of all improvements, and New South Wales, South Australia, and every other state, as well as the Federal Government, are moving steadily in the same direction.

New Zealand has had a graduated state land tax since 1891, which has already to a great extent accomplished its purpose of breaking up large estates. In 1896 local bodies were empowered to levy their rates on the unimproved value of land. By 1909 not less than eighty-five districts had adopted the method, with satisfactory results.

Of the nine *Canadian provinces* three have taken important steps toward the single tax. In *British Columbia* provincial revenue is still derived from poll, property, and income taxes, but since 1891 municipalities have been permitted to exempt improvements from taxation in part or in whole. Since 1892, indeed, municipalities have not been permitted to assess improvements at more than 50 per cent of their actual value. Under the authority thus granted all the important urban and many rural municipalities now exempt improvements entirely, thus raising practically all local revenue from land. The Government, through its Finance Minister, the Hon. Price Ellison, now formally announces its purpose to adopt the single tax for all provincial revenues. He says: "Our aim is to reach a point where direct taxation will be eliminated and our revenues will be obtained from the natural resources of the province. This I regard as a sound policy."

In the *Province of Alberta* there were established in 1912 fifty-two municipalities, which are required to levy their taxes on land values only. The same is true of seventy-four villages, also of forty-four out of forty-six towns. In 1912 the province enacted laws, practically without opposition, requiring, with two exceptions, all towns, all rural municipalities, and all villages to raise their local revenues from taxes assessed upon land according to its actual cash value. The five cities of Alberta have special charters granting wide discretion. Edmonton has exempted all improvements since 1904, and the others are following suit.

In *Saskatchewan* about twenty villages confine taxation to land alone. This province has just passed a new act requiring all rural municipalities to raise their revenue from taxation of land values exclusively, and imposing a graduated surtax, beginning in 1914, upon unoccupied lands. Its main feature is the imposition of a tax of $40 per section of 640 acres upon land of any owner or occupant exceeding 640 acres which has less than one-half of its area under cultivation.

In *Ontario* 300 municipalities have petitioned for power to reduce taxes on improvements. By twenty-three to one the Toronto City Council, in January, 1913, submitted to the citizens the question of exempting buildings, whereupon the citizens voted in the affirmative four to one.

In contrast with these gradual, patient British and Colonial attainments, the record of the United States for actual achievement is a comparative blank. This condition in the birthplace and home of the great expounder himself is not easy to account for.

The chief factor in the practical attitude of the two nations is the difference between the English and the American methods of procedure. In England the voters begin at once to discuss among themselves and within themselves the advantages of the land tax, and straightway, by the very cohesion of a common thought, they set about to get it, with, as it were, one heart and voice, by enactment of land laws. In this country the voters are of a different type; they are mostly too busy to concern themselves with making even their own laws. Consequently the cause has been consigned to scattered organizations, which have proceeded to discuss the theoretical possibilities and impossibilities and probabilities of every phase of the Land Tax question, combined with other questions more or less related, to the end of the catalogue.

The moral is that education and not partisan propaganda is the surest path to the

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triumph of that economic justice which alone can solve our economic problems.

IMITATION DEMOCRACY

Renan deplored what he called the Americanization of Europe because it meant the vulgarization of Europe, and believed that he was singing the swan song of the old order with its emphasis on dignity of life, on refinement of manners, on courtesy in social relations; and lovers of the old order are wont to declare that, while democracy means the broadening of the opportunities of life, it means the cheapening of life. What is gained, they ask, by giving people larger opportunities of life if you diminish the value of life! It is like the inflation of the currency: There is more money and everybody seems richer. But money buys less, values are disturbed, standards confused, and calamity invited. The quantity of money is increased, but its quality is diminished.

It must be confessed that some men who assume to lead the democratic movement give ground for this railing accusation. The "plain, blunt man," who identifies rudeness with honesty, and declares that good manners are survivals of aristocracy and that courtesy is the practice of an effete society, is as insincere as the courtiers who flattered the king because the king was a flowing fountain of favors. There is as much insincerity in a democratic as in a monarchical society; the form is changed, but the insincerity is as great and far less agreeable. In a democracy the people is king and men who flatter the people are as truly sycophants and self-seekers as the men who waylaid the king with fulsome compliments as a means of getting a place or a gift.

One of the forms which the flattery of the people takes is the assumption of rudeness as an evidence of oneness with them. The man who goes through life in his shirt-sleeves for professional purposes is as much an actor as his predecessor in the palace who wore satin and velvet; and the man who is plain and blunt for ulterior purposes is more offensive than the man who simulated a deference which he did not feel; for nothing is meaner than imitating sturdy honesty for the sake of profit. The professional "friend of the people" is on a lower plane than the courtier, because he not only deceives the people but insults them. This was the offense of a well-known politician who, in a political campaign, went from a dinner at a club to address an audience of workingmen and took off his coat and spoke in his shirt-sleeves. The count of the votes on election day showed that his audience understood what the act meant. It was the blunder of a flatterer. There is no man more dignified than the man at work in his shirt-sleeves; but there is no dress so cheap as shirt-sleeves worn as a form of flattery to the workingman.

Rudeness is not only not democratic; it is distinctly undemocratic; for it means lack of respect. The very soul of democracy is respect for a man as a man, without regard to his condition in life. The old-time courtier carefully regulated his deference according to the rank or influence of the members of the court; to the man in favor with the king his bow was profound, while the man who had fallen from favor was fortunate if he was remembered by a glance. The place in the king's favor of the ministers who came from the audience chamber was indicated by the attitude of those who waited without.

In a democracy all men are of the same rank and, so far as position is concerned, are entitled to the same degree of respect; and manners are not relics of antiquated societies; they are the language of human intercourse, and express a man's valuation of his fellows and of himself. It is an old and sound maxim that familiarity breeds contempt. The officer who, on a wager, slapped Washington on the back never repeated the offense; but Washington, who never descended to flattery, was the very soul of fidelity to the people. A man's devotion to the welfare of his fellows is not a matter of clothes or equipage; and the President who rides to his inauguration in a landau is likely to be quite as genuinely democratic in spirit and life as the President who rides to the Capitol and hitches his horse to a tree. The man who, in a London club, was offered a goodly wager if he would repeat to Mr. Gladstone, who was approaching, a story he had just told, did not accept the challenge. Mr. Gladstone's personal dignity did not invite familiarities of any kind; but there was no man in England whose heart and soul were more completely enlisted in the "war for the liberation of Humanity," to recall Heine.

Slovenliness in dress, speech, or manner of life is not evidence of devotion to the good cause of making the world a home and soci-

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ety a family. A German publicist once said that administration is two-thirds of liberty; meaning that the value of liberty depends largely on what the civilization of a country gives a man. Under an autocratic government like that of Germany, life offers far more than a pure democracy in Patagonia could offer. Liberty without civilization would have small value; it might mean freedom to go from place to place, to live where and how one chose; but it would mean bondage of spirit. Abundance of life without nobility of life would be a mockery of human aspiration. The end of democracy is not only to open closed paths, but to set noble goals at the ends of the paths; not only to put more tools into men's hands and give them freer conditions of work, but to give work the dignity of beauty and invest life with spiritual interest.

MAYOR GAYNOR AS A LETTER-WRITER

EXTRACTS FROM "MAYOR GAYNOR'S LETTERS AND SPEECHES"[1]

RAT-CATCHERS AND WISDOM

Your letter of March 15 is at hand, describing how your calling of rat-catcher is being constantly interrupted by your being summoned to serve as a juror.

Sooner than have the city overrun with rats and everything eaten up by them I would have you relieved of jury duty. Do you not think we had better have a bill introduced in the Legislature to exempt rat-catchers from jury service?

The difficulty is, however, that so many exemptions have already been passed by the Legislature that there seem to be only the rat-catchers and a few other people left to serve on juries. That might possibly impede the progress of your bill if sent to Albany.

I will have to carefully consider the matter, and some day when you are down this way come in and we will talk it over, and also about rats. I see that you are a classical scholar, judging by the motto at the head of your letter. My experience is that learned men are to be found everywhere. As we read in "Don Quixote," "The mountains breed learned men and philosophers are found in the huts of shepherds."

OF DEATH

I am sorry for the worry I have caused you all. You remember my dog "Spot," when we were children. He got hurt once, and crawled under a pile of logs and lay there for more than a week before he came out. Well, when any trouble happens to me, I feel just like poor "Spot"—I would like to crawl under the log pile and stay there.

I have not read any newspaper since I was hurt, nor have I been told how the thing happened, except that Commissioner Thompson told me on the deck that I had been shot by a former employee of the Dock Department. . . .

I was standing on the deck. . . . Mr. Adamson [Mr. Gaynor's secretary] pointed out that the ship was dressed with flags for me, but I said I did not think it could be for me. My next consciousness was of a terrible metallic roar in my head. It filled my head, which seemed as though it would burst open. It swelled to the highest pitch, and then fell, and then rose again, and so alternated until it subsided into a continuous buzz. . . . I struggled to breathe through my mouth, but could not, and thought I was dying of strangulation. I kept thinking all the time the best thing to do.

I was not a bit afraid to die if that was God's will of me. I said to myself, just as well now as a few years from now. No one who contemplates the immensity of Almighty God, and of his universe and his works, and realizes what an atom he is in it all, can fear to die in this flesh, yea, even though it were true that he is to be dissolved forever into the infinity of matter and mind from which he came.

FALSEHOOD AND PRAYER

It might be a good thing for you to stop putting out false statements, even though you cannot get your campaign speakers to do the like. I never favored the nomination of Judge Keogh for Governor, nor was he a candidate for Governor, so far as I know. I never knew a dividend to be got out of false

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statements yet. I suppose, very naturally, that the other statements of fact in your published statement are equally false. Suppose you pray every morning for a while for God to direct you to tell the truth, and see what fruits it will bear.

GREECE, ROME, AND JUDEA

Outside of art and poetry, the influence of Greece has not been great on the civilization of the world. In jurisprudence and government, in all that makes up a cohesive structure of society, her influence has been scarcely felt at all, I had almost said not at all, while the modern Western world derives the very warp and woof of its laws and systems of government from Rome. But when we turn to the Jews we cannot fail to perceive that our foundations not only in laws, manners, and usages, but also in religion, are set deep in their legislation and literature. This is particularly true of the English-speaking peoples. The Jews have brought down to us from that border-line where fable scarcely ceases and history hardly begins our knowledge of the one true and ever-living God, which is the sum and substance of our religion. There are no mysteries in the Jewish religion. Everything is fact. The Lord God was the corner-stone fact, and an ever-recurring historical fact. "I am the Lord thy God, who brought thee out of the land of Egypt, and out of the house of bondage," is only one of the thousand passages which attest this.

IMPROVISED BANDS

I fear you do not understand why I deprecate the idea of the city furnishing music to every little playground and recreation place in the city. It is my belief that the people who go to these places for recreation will improvise bands of their own if they are encouraged to do so, and even without any encouragement. All over the country there is an improvised band in every little locality that you come to, even into the edge of the Adirondacks. I was up in the Catskills and along the Hudson River yesterday and found a band-stand in nearly every little settlement and village where volunteer bands play. Do you know of any reason why the plain people of this city cannot organize bands in the same way if we give them a chance? In the large recreation centers the city may furnish music, but in the small places it seems to me that the citizens should improvise their own bands.

REFORMS

I am in receipt of your letter saying that all clubs should be closed at ten o'clock at night, also all saloons, and also that piano-playing and singing should not be allowed at any hour of the night, especially in summer, when people cannot close their windows so as to shut the noise out.

I hereby authorize you to carry out all of these reforms. It may be that you will first have to get elected to the Legislature, and pass laws therefor, for you know this is a government of laws and not of men; that is to say, those put in office may not do as they like, but may only carry out the laws as they are passed by the Legislature. Did you never hear of this before?

WORK

If I were you I would do everything I was asked to do. That is the way to get on in life. Did you ever hear it said that he who takes care to do no more than he is paid for will never be paid for more than he does? Go right in and do everything from sunrise to sunset and you will go right up all the time. What do you think of that?

BROOM CORN AND NEWSPAPERS

I do not know why the grasshoppers should eat up the broom corn crop when there are so many other things much more juicy and satisfactory to their palates. I am therefore quite ready to believe you, and I shall pass the word around among the broom manufacturers, if I can. Perhaps the newspapers will do it, although it is very hard to get some of them to contradict their own stories. It detracts from the notion of their infallibility. However, we have some newspapers here that are just as ready to contradict themselves as to contradict anybody else. They daily contradict in their morning edition what they say in their evening edition, and in the evening what they say in the morning.

WHAT WOULD JESUS DO?

You tell me you have been elected a Justice of the Peace at Oak Park, Illinois, and desire to administer your office the same as Jesus would do if he were there instead of you. You ask for my advice. You say you believe the present system of fines for minor offenses is wrong in principle, for the reason that it "tends to increase crime and promote disrespect to law." You also say that the law allows you to collect fees for yourself. You ask if Jesus would assess such fines and

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collect such fees, if he were in your place. You seem to be a man who thinks himself wiser and better than the law and above the law. That kind of a man is the most dangerous that can be put into office, especially in a free country. The law is made by the representatives whom we elect to the Legislature. You are elected a Justice of the Peace to accept the laws thus made, and carry them out. If you do not wish to do that, you ought to resign. You think you are wiser and better than the law, but if you make inquiry you will probably find few people who are of that opinion. "What would Jesus do?" you ask me. If he accepted the office, he would also accept the law as it is and administer it faithfully. . . . He abided by the law. He constantly quoted the law. Where he did not like the law, he advocated a change to something better. He attended the synagogue and taught the law there. It was the abuse and misuse of the law which he denounced. If you do not like the laws as they are in your locality, you ought to get yourself elected to the Legislature and then work hard to change them. But, as a judge, you must abide by the law. Are you unconscious of the fact that by your oath of office you have sworn to do so? Suppose every judge in this country, from the highest to the lowest, took it into his head to ignore the law, and decide cases to suit himself. What a woeful condition that would very soon put us all in! And yet you, a little Justice of the Peace out in Oak Park, Illinois, want to act in that way. As to your fees, neither Jesus nor any one else cares whether you collect them or not.

WEIGHTS AND LITERATURE

Mr. Spencer has shown me your letter of June 12 commending the adoption of the New International Metric Carat of two hundred milligrams by the Bureau of Weights and Measures of this city for the measure of weight of precious gems. It does me good to have you take notice of that official act. . . . From the earliest times one of the first acts of government has been to establish honest and just standards of weights and measures. You find much on the subject in ancient literature. It recurs again and again in the Old Testament. "A false balance is an abomination to the Lord; but a just weight is his delight," as we read in Proverbs (xi. 1).

SUMMER VESPER SERMONS

THE DIVINE REFUGE

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

"He that dwelleth in the secret place of the Most High shall abide under the shadow of the Almighty."—Psalm xci, 1.

I REMEMBER, when a young man in New York City, meeting a man who had been a fireman, and who, on a cold winter night, when a fire broke out on Broadway, fought it all night, holding the hose; and as he stood and fought those flames his hand was alternately frozen and thawed, frozen and thawed, frozen and thawed, frozen by the cold water chilling it and thawed by the reflected heat of the flames when he worked close to them; and he never knew what had happened until he came forth from the battle with the flames, and his arm was dead and had to be amputated. A great soul is master of the body, and the very physical pains do not touch us when we are lifted up above them by a noble and divine enthusiasm.

Many a mother, many a wife, has sent son and husband forth to war, saying to them, if not in words, at all events in her heart, this: Go; God be with you and protect you from the bullet, protect you from the bayonet, protect you from the fever, but, above all, protect you from cowardice, from failure, from falsehood, from shame! Many a mother has shared the enthusiasm of the Spartan mother who would welcome her son back from the war on his shield rather than with a wound in his back.

To dwell in the secret place of the Most High is to live in this higher realm. Not with the promise, if you live there, that you shall be rich—poverty shall not threaten you; that you shall be well—sickness shall not touch you;

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that your home shall be preserved from disaster—disease and suffering shall not enter the household. But the promise that if you live in this secret place of the Most High God these things shall not touch you, because you are living where no earthly woe or suffering can harm. Poverty may take away wealth; sickness may take away strength; death may take away from your eyes the outward form of your beloved. But they cannot any of them touch the invisible, the interior, the spiritual, the real, the vital.

"Because thou hast made the Lord, which is my refuge, even the Most High, thy habitation, there shall no evil befall thee, neither shall any plague come nigh thy dwelling." What is thy dwelling? A tent you have put up for a little while? The wind may blow that down. What is thy dwelling? The house you have put up along the hillside? The waters may wash it away, or the fires may consume it. Because thou hast made *the Lord* thy dwelling, no evil shall come on thy dwelling. Thou dwellest in the secret place of the Most High. And harm cannot come on the dwelling of one who dwells in God. "Thou shalt tread upon the lion and adder; the young lion and the dragon shalt thou trample under feet." You wanted to go where the grass was soft beneath your feet, where the branches waved their palms above you, and where the birds sang on the right hand and on the left; and God has led you in a different way. He has brought you through the desert, and the rocks are barren on the one side and on the other, and the lions are roaring and the dragons are threatening, and the adders hiss their venomous menace in your ears. But if God is your God, if you are dwelling in the secret place of the Most High, you shall go where poisons are, where wild beasts rave, where the desert sands burn, where deadly things congregate; but you shall put your feet on the lion and the adder, and the young lion and the dragon shall be beneath your feet. "He shall call upon Me, and I will answer him; I will be with him in trouble; I will deliver him and honor him." You wanted that God should save you from trouble, and he has done a great deal better. He has let you go into trouble and been with you in it. It is no great calamity to be in trouble with God as our comrade, and it is the most awful calamity that can befall a human soul to be in prosperity without God.

There are other prophets inviting you and offering you a refuge. Pleasure comes, with its mincing feet and its dimpled cheeks and its laughing eyes, and says, "Make me your refuge; laugh and forget." There are cares and troubles in life for which pleasure's message furnishes a very good recipe; but when deep sorrow takes hold of human life we turn with loathing from her painted face. Pride says, "Come unto me, and I will not give you rest; but I will choke back the sob, and give you strength to keep back the tears, that at least others shall not see you grieve; you shall know how to conceal it." Philosophy says, "Come unto me, and I will teach you; I will show you that sorrow is everywhere and always, not to be escaped while life lasts. I will give you a new translation of the 139th Psalm: 'Whither shall I go from Sorrow? If I ascend up into the heavens, thou art there. If I make my bed in hell, behold, thou art there. If I take the wings of the morning, and dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea, even there shall thy presence be with me, and thy right hand hold me fast. If I say, Surely the darkness shall cover me, even the night shall be no refuge for me.' The universe shall not furnish a hiding-place from omnipresent sorrow. There is no refuge but in Nirvana; there is no deliverance from the ills of life except in ceasing to be." Over against these prophets that call you—Pleasure, Pride, Philosophy—I put before you the call of Jehovah: "He that dwelleth in the secret place of the Most High, he that abideth under the shadow of the Almighty, he, though he walk in troubles, shall be untroubled; though he stand in the fire, it shall not burn him; though he pass through the waters, they shall not overflow."

I began with the unknown Hebrew Psalmist; let me end with Paul:

"In all things approving ourselves as the ministers of God, in much patience, in afflictions, in necessities, in distresses, in stripes, in imprisonments, in tumults, in labors, in watchings, in fastings, in pureness, in knowledge, in long-suffering, in kindness, in the Holy Spirit, in love unfeigned, in the word of truth, in the power of God, in the armor of righteousness on the right hand and on the left, through honor and dishonor, through evil report and good report; counted deceivers, and yet true; counted unknown, and yet well known; as dying, and behold we live; as chastened, and not killed; as sorrowful, yet always rejoicing; as poor, and yet making many rich; as having nothing, and yet possessing all things."

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FIXED PRICES VERSUS CUT PRICES

ANSWERS FROM CORRESPONDENTS

IN The Outlook of May 24, 1913, we asked eight questions on the subject of Price Regulation, and said that we would resume the discussion at a later date and print some of the replies received. The consensus of opinion shown by the responses seems to be emphatically in favor of the principle of fixed, or maintained, prices, while at the same time strongly advocating such governmental control as will prevent an agreement between manufacturers for raising prices unduly; but there are naturally a few correspondents who, for one reason or another, are opposed to the policy of fixed prices. Most of the replies maintain that price-cutting works ultimately to the injury of the consumer and the dealer as well as of the manufacturer, and that, although small amounts are saved by the purchaser from time to time, in the long run the public loses rather than gains by the practice. Letters have been received from manufacturers, from wholesale and retail dealers, and from consumers. Among the first named are replies from Mr. R. D. Eastman, of the Kellogg Toasted Corn Flake Company of Battle Creek, Michigan, and from Mr. H. M. Fry, of the Narrow Fabric Company, manufacturers of Nufashond shoe laces and lingerie braids. Mr. Eastman speaks from the standpoint of a manufacturer, and considers primarily the right of a manufacturer to maintain a fixed price on the article he produces, because of the fact that through his advertising of the article he creates a market for the retailer, and that by cutting the price the value of his product is lowered in the estimation of the public. His claim is that in connection with a very widely advertised branded article the dealer is not so much a seller as an agent or distributer, as the goods are virtually sold for him, in advance, by means of the advertising, and that all he has to do is to carry a supply of the goods and act as a medium through which they reach the consumer. We give Mr. Eastman's main arguments in their order in connection with the list of questions on the next page and the answers thereto that appear later in this article.

In his general discussion of the subject Mr. Fry says:

"Your very interesting article on 'Fixed Prices versus Cut Prices' has attracted my attention, and, being interested in Nationally advertised goods and price-maintenance, I wish to call the attention of your readers to one or two aspects of the price-cutting question that are usually overlooked by the consumer, especially the injury and hardship which price-cutting works to the ultimate purchaser of any advertised commodity. We all admit that to stand the test of time advertised goods must be products of standard value, if not exceptional value, and must have the confidence and guarantee of their makers; otherwise the money spent for advertising would be lost, as it is not the first sale but the continued use of advertised goods that makes an advertising campaign successful. The retailers and jobbers both recognize this fact, and use it to great advantage in pushing the sales of unadvertised goods which net them a larger margin of profit. As an example, in our local town one of the large department stores recently used in a full-page advertisement Ivory soap at three cents per cake and Pebeco tooth paste at thirty-five cents per tube as a bait to lead the public to believe that a hundred other items mentioned in the same advertisement were equally underpriced, and these two extensively advertised and standardized articles were placed in a false light, and the public led to believe that the merchant who is maintaining the regular price is making too much profit; and, as a consequence, the consumer purchases unadvertised goods of inferior quality at a lower price, except when the advertised goods are being used as a bait, in which case they are usually sold at cost, and sometimes at less than cost, as an advertising proposition. Unless the manufacturer of such advertised goods is upheld in an honest effort to maintain fixed prices on such items, a great injustice is done not only to the manufacturer but also to the consumer. . . . If Ivory soap were the only soap, and Nufashond laces the only silk Oxford laces, and the fixed re-sale prices exorbitant, then the manufacturers should be enjoined from fixing prices; but when the public has the choice of buying a hundred other soaps and shoe laces, advertised or unadvertised, why should not the manufacturers of the first-named articles have the right to fix such prices as

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will net the dealer a living profit, and prevent unscrupulous dealers from advertising such items at prices that will mislead the public as to the value of the articles themselves or give the impression that other goods which are offered at the same counter are underpriced?"

Another significant letter is from Mr. H. V. Arny, a professor of chemistry, but formerly a retail druggist in New York City, and later secretary of a druggists' association. While Mr. Eastman and Mr. Fry look at the question from the point of view of the manufacturer, and argue the right of the manufacturer to maintain the price on his product, Mr. Arny looks at the question from the standpoint of the dealer and of the consumer, and while favoring fixed prices for the consumer, also strongly advocates uniform prices as between manufacturers and dealers. He is vigorously opposed to the special prices for quantity made by many manufacturers of otherwise fixed price articles, which unjustly discriminate against the small dealer.

A number of correspondents have replied to our questions point by point. We regret that limitations of space prevent our giving the answers in full, or even using all the responses we have received. We reprint on this page the list of questions, and we give below extracts from the specific replies thereto.

THE EIGHT QUESTIONS

1. Are fixed prices ever desirable, and if so, when and where are they desirable?
2. What have been the history and procedure of civilization in fixing retail prices?
3. Have we in this country now a recognized commercial system of fixing retail prices?
4. Is there any revolt against that system? If so, what is the revolt and what are its causes?
5. Are the manufacturers justified in their fear that public opinion, either led by or expressed in Government action, is planning to destroy the system of fixing retail prices?
6. Should we strive to prevent this destruction, and if so, how?
7. If we do prevent it, shall we be content with the procedure of the last twenty-five years for the fixing of retail prices, or shall we adopt some new methods of procedure?
8. If we desire some new methods of procedure, what shall they be?

THE RIGHT OF THE MANUFACTURER TO MAINTAIN PRICES

1. Price-maintenance, whether by a manufacturer in a competitive field, a monopoly, or a combination, consists of two elements, the fixing of the price in the first place, and the maintaining of the price in the second place, so that it is the same to all purchasers at all places and at all times. A general rule may be laid down that no price-fixing is desirable which is not regulated and controlled by the law of supply and demand. Where competition exists the law of supply and demand works freely; where competition is stifled the operation of the law of supply and demand is defeated. Consequently it is undesirable for monopolies or combinations arbitrarily to fix or determine the price of commodities. On the other hand, no danger can be apprehended from the fixing of prices by a manufacturer in a competitive field. That manufacturer does not actually fix the price on his commodity. It is fixed for him by inexorable natural laws which he dares not disregard.

But the *maintenance* of prices after they have been fixed, no matter how or by whom, is highly desirable. Regardless of the right of the manufacturer to control the price, upon which subject more may be said, the maintenance of a system of uniform prices throughout the entire market for a specific article, so that no dealer or purchaser may have any buying advantage over another, is surely a desirable thing. . . .

2. . . . The history of price-maintenance is synchronous with that of advertising. Twenty or thirty years ago the question could not be raised as it is raised to-day. Price-maintenance was an unknown thing, because advertising was then an unmeasured force. It is only with the development of that great selling force to its present vast proportions that price-maintenance has become the manufacturer's right and necessity. For advertising has provided the manufacturer with the means of bridging the chasm previously existing between him and the consumer, of selling his own goods in a very literal sense

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before they leave the factory—of selling them even before they are made. Advertising has created new channels of merchandising. The old doctrine of *caveat emptor*, "let the buyer beware," has given place to the modern guarantee which stands behind most advertised trade-marked goods, and to the implied guarantee which stands behind every brand of advertised goods, in that the producer places his name and the reputation of his business in jeopardy unless he most rigidly maintains quality and value.

The history of maintained prices in the United States is just beginning to be written. The new channels of merchandising which the great selling force of advertising has created are just beginning to be charted and to be given a place upon the commercial map. Laws which were built to conform to old methods of selling are being rebuilt and remodeled to fit the new conditions. Though the science of advertising has reached a higher plane in America than elsewhere in the world, the American lawmakers are still behind Canada, Germany, and Denmark in their creation of new rules to fit the new times. New conditions must create new remedies, and it is only reasonable to expect that out of the present chaos a new and modern legal system will be born.

3. . . . Strictly speaking, the only recognized commercial system of fixing retail prices which we have in America is that fostered and engendered by combinations and monopolies, and by virtue of which largely they have derived their very existence. It is a deeply rooted artificial system which is in direct conflict with the natural system of fixing prices that obtains when natural laws and forces are permitted to operate freely. Hence it is that this system of fixing prices is designated as being in restraint of trade, and it is for the purpose of blocking and, if possible, terminating this system that such measures as the Sherman Law have been devised and enforced.

Now if The Outlook had asked the question, "Have we in this country now a recognized commercial system of *maintaining* prices?" the answer would be far different. It probably could be truthfully stated that there is no recognized commercial system of maintaining prices. Many manufacturers, recognizing the necessity of protecting the value of their products in the public mind or maintaining the price on their products, have attempted to do so in many ways. The varying natures of their trade and of their market have required various methods. But each separate manufacturer has doubtless directed his efforts toward the same object, that of maintaining uniform prices throughout his market, so as to prevent discrimination in price, which inevitably breeds dissatisfaction, which in turn causes decreased patronage, a restricted market, and increased costs. . . .

Answering The Outlook's first question, then, we have in this country a recognized commercial system of "fixing" retail prices. We also have varying systems of *maintaining* retail prices, and the two systems are perpetually and inevitably at war with one another. The first system is still operative, because all the instrumentalities of the Government have been comparatively ineffective in their effort to curb the power of these great combinations. The various systems of price-maintenance employed by independent manufacturers for the purpose of preventing price-discrimination and insuring equal rights and opportunities to all are constantly being rendered less effective owing to the Government's attacks upon them under the Sherman Law, resulting, apparently, from the confusion with one another of these two systems which have such similar designations, though so vastly different in their purposes and their results.

4. Revolt is a severe term. It seems to contemplate an intense and active antagonism against the system or thing in question. Is there a revolt in this country against price-fixing either in the sense of *price-manipulation* by combinations or monopolies, or in the sense of *price-maintenance* by independent manufacturers? The first part of this question embraces the entire trust issue, and one is tempted to answer offhand that there *is* a revolt against that system of price-fixing employed by the trusts—namely, price-manipulation. . . . Let us admit, for the purpose of this discussion, that there is a well-grounded and well-warranted revolt against price-fixing or price-manipulation by the trusts, and proceed to the consideration of the real question at issue in The Outlook's query—whether there is a revolt against *price-maintenance* by manufacturers, and, if so, what it is and what are its causes. . . . Speaking from intimate knowledge of the experience of one manufacturer who has been extremely active in maintaining a uniform price on his product (the Kellogg Toasted Corn Flake Company),

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I can say that this manufacturer cannot recall a single instance of a complaint from a *consumer* about prices. The same testimony can be borne, I am sure, by dozens of other manufacturers who maintain their prices.

Indeed, there is no conceivable reason why the consumer should complain. The intelligent manufacturer, in establishing and maintaining the retail price for his product, must of necessity consider the consumer first of all. His success in business is measured by his success in pleasing the consumer. If he maintains too high a price, his competitor will get the business. . . .

Is there a revolt against price-maintenance on the part of *tradesmen?* In a general sense this question may be answered as emphatically in the negative as the first. The manufacturer above referred to recently took a straw vote on the question of maintained prices from his dealers. There were over twelve hundred votes in favor of price-maintenance, with only eight against. . . .

5. If that is what the manufacturers fear—and they certainly fear something—the question seems to have been answered by the decision of the Supreme Court in the so-called Sanatogen decision rendered since the appearance of the editorial in which The Outlook asked the question. I say, "if that is what the manufacturers fear," for it seems that the manufacturers do not know what they really do fear. And the very intangibility of the thing, whatever it is, makes it all the more fearful. All that the manufacturers know is that no manufacturer, no matter who he is or what his business may be, whether he has a virtual monopoly in his line or a thousand competitors, and regardless of the honesty of his motives or ambitions, can carry through the simplest and most necessary operations of a year's business without having a lawyer constantly at his right hand to tell him at each juncture whether or not he is violating the Sherman Law.

And nine times out of ten the lawyer doesn't know. It is a sad commentary on the Government's attempts to regulate the business of the country that this condition exists, but that it does exist almost any business man in the country will unhesitatingly testify. . . . But whoever is right, and whatever the case may be, it seems plain from this that while the present chaos reigns, if the long arm of the Government has any weight and if the Federal prisons hold any terrors, manufacturers are justified—amply justified—in such vague, indeterminate fears as they may at present entertain.

6. Price-maintenance is the very essence of Americanism—a guarantee of equal rights for all and special privileges to none. It is the embodiment in trade of the cardinal principle of equality, and as such it is a principle that Americans should be willing to fight for. Its adherents believe that it is a principle so plainly just and right that it must eventually prevail; nevertheless they believe in striving to the utmost to prevent even a temporary overthrowal of the principle. Such an overthrowal, they believe, would be a National calamity, in that it would constitute a serious setback to the whole commercial progress of the country. Moreover, it would defeat the very ends of justice for which the Sherman Law was devised. . . .

"And if so, how?" How may we prevent the contemplated destruction of the manufacturer's right to maintain a uniform price on his product? First, I should say, by counteracting in every way we can the tendency toward confusion by lawyers, by legislators, and even by courts, of the two kinds of "price-fixing"—*price-manipulation* by a monopoly, and *price-maintenance* by a manufacturer in a competitive field. This may be done in part by education; by the putting forth of intelligent propaganda. . . . If the message can be brought forcibly to the minds of the most intelligent, those that are wrestling with these problems, notably to the minds of those who make and who interpret the laws, so that they will sense the great injustice of depriving the manufacturer of a right so essential under modern trade conditions to the welfare of his business—which means to the welfare of the consumers of his product and of his workingmen as well—the most essential part of the educational campaign will have been accomplished. . . . We should have a conclusive interpretation of the Sherman Law and a final definition of "unreasonable restraint of trade," an interpretation, it is hoped, in harmony with the original intent and purpose of the law to discourage special privilege and to encourage fair and equal treatment of all buyers in all merchandising transactions. . . .

7. Obviously it will be impossible in any event for all manufacturers to adopt any one given programme for the maintenance of prices. The varying natures of their trade

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and of the conditions which confront them render this impossible. Some of their methods are crude and imperfect, but if they comprehend any injustice and unfairness it is injustice and unfairness *only* to the manufacturers themselves, for the competitor always stands ready to take advantage of and correct any mistake that may be made. It would seem best to permit each manufacturer to work out his own salvation. . . . The present necessity seems to be to establish the right of the manufacturer of any article which is sold on his reputation and under his guarantee in a competitive market (so that he, and he alone, is the permanent sufferer if the success of his business is defeated) to establish and maintain the price.

8. I should say that the method is not nearly so important as the object to be attained, and that the object should be to secure the recognition of advertising as a legitimate and economical selling force, and to establish the fact that the manufacturer of an advertised, trade-marked article actually retains title to that article until it passes into the hands of the consumer. Advertising is selling; but by many people, and particularly, I take it, by the legislatures and courts, it is still looked upon as "merely advertising"—an intangible something that the advertiser recklessly pays his money for, and that in some way tends to increase the high cost of living. If we can once get the legislatures and the courts actually to recognize the fact that *advertising is selling*, the whole controversy over the right of the manufacturer to maintain retail prices, and doubtless many other important points as well, will be finally settled. It is the inherent right of the seller to name the price for the thing sold. And if advertising is selling, and the advertiser really sells his product, who else but the advertiser should have the right to name the price? . . . The thing really on trial in this controversy, then, is the recognition of advertising as a legitimate and economical selling force, and of a trade-mark or brand as a tangible, valuable, and protectable property, not only as contemplated by the trade-mark laws, but as should be comprehended by the fair trading laws of the country. When this is accomplished, the methods will adjust themselves according to the different businesses to which they shall apply.

R. D. EASTMAN,
Kellogg Toasted Corn Flake Co.
Battle Creek, Michigan.

UNIFORM PRICES MEAN JUSTICE FOR ALL

1. As to your question No. 1, I will say that uniform prices are not only desirable but are also absolutely essential to the future well-being of every person in our land, provided such price-fixing is done under governmental supervision and includes a minimum as well as a maximum selling price. The need of a maximum standard is apparent to all who feel the pinch of the high cost of living. . . . As to a minimum selling price, the writer need merely cite a personal experience of the past few months when, getting a well-known baby food from a druggist friend at the actual cost price (as far as that druggist was concerned), he afterwards learned that "Jones's Department Store" would deliver it at his door for fifteen cents less than the regular wholesale price. How does Jones make his philanthropy pay? While the small retailer pays the regular wholesale price for the proprietaries he sells, the department store has the advantage of quantity lot discounts, which in the transaction under consideration amounted to considerable over the fifteen-cent cut "below wholesale cost price." This "quantity discount" is as pernicious as railway rebates, and like such rebates will eventually be legislated out of existence. But Jones is not equally philanthropic on all his sales. . . .

2. As to your second question, I need only cite that the German Government has for many years fixed the retail prices for all drugs, even to the extent of designating what must be charged for bottle, cork, label, or ointment box used in dispensing the medicine. Such list, revised each year, furnishes a curiously interesting supplement to the German drug journals.

3. Many conscientious efforts have been made by groups of pharmacists toward fixing prices on the basis of legitimate profit, but up to now such efforts have met with only temporary success. A drug association of National extent, in a perfectly open and well-meant effort in that direction, felt the strong arm of the National Government some six years since, on the grounds that such price-fixing was in contravention of the Sherman Law. Local efforts to fix prices by mutual consent have been made scores of times in the writer's experience, but after a few weeks or a few months of success the end was failure. . . .

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4 and 5. Questions four and five can be answered together as far as the drug business is concerned, and that in several ways. In the first place, the recent decision of the Supreme Court in the case of the Bauer Chemical Company vs. O'Donnell seems, upon superficial examination, to show that even the owner of a patented product has no right to dictate the retail selling price of his commodity; while efforts to fix retail prices by retail dealers are ever held as violations of the Sherman Law. The revolt against retail price-fixing is directed against unjust, or at least unexplained, causes of price changes. For instance, the coal men may be able to explain why a fifty-cent raise followed a seventeen-cent raise in cost of production, but we consumers, at least, have not been enlightened on the subject. In short, the crux of the situation is that retail prices should be fixed, but only with due regard to cost of production, legitimate profit of the dealer, and protection of the public against extortion. . . .

6 and 7. Questions six and seven are answered above, for we have outgrown the price-fixing systems in vogue during the past quarter-century.

8. The solution of this question must be based on the three primal considerations—justice to the producer, to the dealer, and to the consumer. . . . The retail selling price of ordinary commodities can surely be justly determined, and especially since in practically every line of trade the machinery of price-fixing is already in operation in the form of exchanges or similar associations. These bodies obtain day by day all the data needed for scientific price-fixing, and the only grievance the public has against such exchanges is because up to now the prices seem to be fixed only in the interest of the producer and the wholesale dealer. The only thing needed to make these exchanges of real service to the public, instead of instruments of oppression, as now popularly imagined, is governmental supervision. . . . Governmental officers or commissions, co-operating with the exchanges and vested with authority to fix prices, retail as well as wholesale, minimum as well as maximum, could certainly bring about a great reform. . . .

H. V. Arny,
Professor of Chemistry, Columbia University College of Pharmacy.

New York City.

A PROTEST AGAINST FIXED PRICES

1. No. They (fixed prices) tend to produce mediocrity, to foster inefficiency, and to discourage ambition. One objection to the fixed price for labor is that it tends to pay the inefficient man the same as the efficient, to prevent a good workman from producing a greater volume and thereby increasing his value as he decreases the unit cost. So with fixed prices for the merchant. A dead level usually ends in stagnation. Further, fixed prices bring about an inquisitorial and spy system to find out who may be "breaking over," and tend to produce a "nation of liars."

2. The history of the fixed-price system shows that it is the inchoate effort toward securing a monopoly for some particular article of merchandise. A manufacturer by immense advertising attempts to create in the public mind an hallucination that his brand is the best; that all other similar products are frauds, shams, and counterfeits. "Accept no substitute," "Don't take others," "Just as good," "Look for the signature," on each package are current advertising phrases used generally with the so-called fixed-price articles. The idea of the manufacturer is not primarily to serve the public with merchandise, but to sell it his trade-mark on each package at what he considers its value. It is a safe rule that highly advertised articles show less actual unit value at the fixed consumer's price than any others.

3. There is undoubtedly a concerted effort on the part of the owners of proprietary articles to fix retail prices. Also to compel the jobber and retail merchant to handle these goods on such a slim margin that no net profit is left after deducting the expense of doing business. The retailer knows this, realizes that these goods are unprofitable for him to handle, and that it is better to sell them at cost for advertising purposes, and thereby bring customers for other business. . . . Both the jobber and the retailer will be only too glad to see most of these fixed-price articles sold direct by the manufacturer, and the only reason he does not do it is that the cost of distribution in this way is prohibitive. . . .

4. There is undoubtedly a tremendous revolt against the oppression of the fixed-price system. Numerous suits have been brought by both wholesale and retail merchants to protect themselves from fines, blacklisting, etc., and in every case the manu-

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facturers have been defeated when they tried to control the re-sale price after title had been regularly passed. The merchants feel that the manufacturer has no more right to interfere with their business by dictating re-sale prices than they have to dictate to the manufacturer by fixing his original selling price. The whole policy is un-American and can never be saddled permanently on this country. Advertised goods have no sacred niche on the shelves, and are entitled to no more consideration than the general run of merchandise. American merchants are not going to have their business embarrassed by a small coterie of "fixed-price National advertisers" whose chief aim is to exploit the public. . . .

5. Manufacturers are undoubtedly justified in believing that the fixed-price system is gone for good. It was a right they arrogated to themselves without ever having any legal or moral justification for it. It was used oppressively and arrogantly, and many retail merchants and jobbers have good cases for the recovery of legal damages by reason of the treatment meted out to them. The advertising manufacturers are spending huge sums of money for publicity in order to stir up sentiment in their favor and have their intended victims actually plead for a chance to be shorn.

6. No; rather we should seek to destroy the system once and for all. Fixed prices and extravagant advertising go together. The huge sum spent in advertising is economic waste; the public pays the bill. It is one of the big factors in the high cost of living. The only thing that keeps nine-tenths of the advertised fixed-price brands before the public is the advertising. Judged by merit alone they would not persist a year after the initial advertising campaign. . . . Give the merchant free rein in buying as well as selling his goods. Let the contest be one of brains and ability, a fair field and no favors. . . .

7. The procedure of the last twenty years in fixing retail prices has apparently been at variance with the laws existing during that term, as evidenced by recent Supreme Court decisions. The manufacturers imagined that because they sold certain unpatented articles under a registered trade-mark the law gave them the right to vend the article, pass title to it, and still retain an interest in it sufficient to control the re-sale price—a manifest absurdity. Therefore if we are to have any procedure for fixing retail prices the method must be different.

8. An effective method would be to give the Bureau of Commerce the right to hear applications from manufacturers desiring to vend articles at fixed re-sale prices, and where found advisable to grant them a license for a year at a time on the following conditions:

1. Require each manufacturer to file with his application his bare manufacturing cost of the article (not including advertising), the price at which he proposes to sell it to the jobber, the jobber to the retailer, and the retailer to the public. . . .

2. Where, to designate the article to be sold, a proprietary name is used which conveys no proper idea of what the article is, insist on the familiar English name being given in addition.

3. Prevent false and misleading statements being used in connection with the advertising of the article.

4. In the case of patent medicines and other goods of this class forbid such manufacturers the right to inter-State transportation, the use of the mails, and also papers or magazines that accept their advertising the use of the mails, when false and misleading statements are given as to the effect of these medicines.

5. Require a sufficient fee for the license to pay the expense of the Bureau in carefully investigating each application, and thereby make the service self-sustaining.

JOHN D. HOUSTON,
Pittsburg, Pennsylvania. Wholesale Grocer.

A PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

In connection with your editorial in the May 24 issue of The Outlook on "Fixed Prices versus Cut Prices," and the article by Mr. Nims on "Price Protection and the Consumer," I venture to mention a somewhat amusing but rather irritating little experience which I met with recently. I was in the manicuring and hair-dressing department of one of our New York shops, and, noticing an attractively arranged case filled with toilet articles, asked for a tube of Kolynos tooth paste, for which I was charged nineteen cents. The published or marked price on this tube was twenty-five cents, which seems to be the usual marked price for many similar articles. On my way out of the store I noticed a bargain counter of toilet articles in the aisle on the main floor, and to my surprise found Kolynos displayed there with a special price card offering it at *fifteen cents* per tube; thus in the same store there was a difference of four cents on the same commodity! Very likely this may not have been intentional, but due to an oversight in that the price had not been reduced on the Kolynos

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paste tubes sold on the second floor; but it was a concrete evidence of the discrimination that constantly exists where price-cutting is indulged in. Undoubtedly I could have "appealed the case," and perhaps the four cents would have been refunded to me, if it had seemed to be worth while to take the time to go into the matter. A similar state of affairs is constantly existing, however, one purchaser paying fifteen or sixteen cents for a certain article in one store, while his neighbor pays nineteen or twenty cents in another.

It is undoubtedly "dear to the feminine mind" to save three or four cents on an article of this sort, and whenever we do so we feel considerably elated, but it is also undoubtedly an unnatural and unhealthy condition of affairs looked at from a broad standpoint.

It seems to me very doubtful, however, whether many articles the prices of which are commonly cut are actually worth the price which the manufacturer has put upon them, and therefore, if the manufacturers of such articles should be allowed to insist that all dealers sell the goods at a uniform price, there would necessarily have to be a readjustment of prices to meet this situation; but very likely this would naturally follow through the ordinary channels of competition, for the public would refuse to pay what seems to them too high a price and buy instead other articles sold at a somewhat lower price. A WOMAN READER.

In addition to the letters already named, we have received a considerable number giving more or less detailed replies, but reaching much the same conclusions, the majority being in favor of fixed re-sale prices. Mr. William H. Duff II, of P. Duff & Sons, Canners of Molasses, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, says: "Among the people—in the minority, we hope and believe—exists the idea that fixed prices mean arbitrary action by manufacturers and illegitimate profit. And unhappily an impression of that character seems to have taken hold of some of our Government officials. It seems perfectly safe to say that no manufacturer can succeed with his product, if guided only by the legality of fixed prices, if he attempts to get illegitimate profit. The law of averages, if nothing else, will hinder him. And without fixed prices, that unwise, misguided element amongst merchants can seriously disrupt business."

Mr. F. Palmer Church, of Cleveland, Ohio, author of "Modern Business Methods," writes: "It would be a good public policy if the State could fix a minimum price at which certain commodities shall be sold; that is the effectual way to prevent monopolies or combinations in restraint of trade. The only evil in big business is that it operates over such a wide territory and does such a volume of business that it can monopolize the raw material; and when a small competitor seeks to get started, the big business can cut its life short by selling in the particular locality of the small would-be competitor at less than it costs the big business to produce the commodity. Such is the method of stifling competition, and it is against public policy. . . . If we found it possible thus to fix a minimum price at which a commodity can be sold, it would largely or wholly abolish the element of price competition, and leave the competitors to compete only in making as good a commodity as they can at the fixed price, or within the fixed price."

A woman storekeeper in a small New England town, who signs herself "Fairplay," says: "I think fixed prices would overcome many of the difficulties which the smaller dealers like myself have to meet. On National Biscuit goods prices are fixed, and while our profit is less than on many other things, no one thinks of complaining, and the company practically sells them for us by its advertising."

Mr. R. Winger, of Flint, Michigan, believes that "fixed prices are desirable on every article of real merit at all times." He believes that they are desirable for the manufacturer, the wholesale and retail dealer, and especially for the public at large, for "one man's money should have the same purchasing power as another's. . . . Give the manufacturer or proprietor of a brand a full and legally protected right to make the retail and wholesale price of his article, but not of the product in a general sense."

Mr. A. G. Palmer, of Wrights, California, favors fixed prices if they are low enough to benefit the consumer and high enough to insure the farmer a fair return for his product, but he thinks the manufacturer does not need such protection. He speaks from the standpoint of a farmer and a consumer and thinks that "in the fixing of retail prices on proprietary and staple articles the persons to be given first consideration are those who wrest from the earth the raw materials and the consumer."

On the negative side of the question are Mr. E. L. Feinberg, of Chelsea, Mas-

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sachusetts, and Mr. Alexander H. Meyer, of a firm of shoppers for department stores in New York City. Mr. Feinberg is in favor of price-cutting where it is truthful, though he is opposed to "fake" price-cutting. Mr. Meyer seems to take it for granted that if price-protection were secured it would necessarily mean excessively high prices. Mr. Meyer refers at considerable length to the question of advertising, but takes the opposite view to that of Mr. Eastman and Mr. Fry. Mr. Meyer thinks that we are in a period of extravagant advertising, and that the "high cost of living can be accounted for in a great measure by the vast sums spent for advertising," and in this connection he protests against what he considers the excessively high and unregulated advertising rates charged by some magazines and newspapers. He says: "Price-protection would be clubbing the consumer into poverty and the makers into vaster riches, now already too vast." On the affirmative side, Mr. D. R. Wilson writes: "Fixed prices are always desirable where they are not used to foster a monopoly. It is the only square deal to the manufacturer, the jobber, the dealer, and the consumer. . . . No fair man objects to paying the same price as any one else pays. Fixed prices are his guarantee of fair dealing—a protection that should by all means be accorded him. Fixed prices are the very bulwark of our business life. They enable the manufacturer to be sure of his profit; they enable the jobber and the dealer to know just what profit they will both make and to know that no one can undersell them; they enable the public to know the exact price of an article, so that no one individual consumer can buy for less than any other consumer. . . ." A letter from the F. Wallis Armstrong Company, Advertising Agents, of Philadelphia, reads as follows: "Although there may be isolated cases in which fixed prices are not desirable, the general working rule should be: A fair price and the same to everybody. A large proportion of the economic injustice in modern organized business is directly traceable to the fact that prices in many instances are *not* the same to everybody. . . . Fixed prices bring frankness, fair play, and the light of open day on business transactions. The merchant trades and the buyer buys with his eyes open. When prices are not fixed, deception, suspicion, 'throat-cutting,' and outright fraud are invited and actually do enter." They thus sum up their very interesting treatment of the subject:

1. The general economic rule should be: A fair price and the same to everybody.
2. The custom of fixing prices is a natural growth founded on a natural and just law.
3. Government should recognize this. Government should eradicate monopoly, but foster price maintenance. Throttle monopoly and prices will take care of themselves.
4. All retailers who violate price agreements or contracts should be amenable to the law.

PEACE

BY H. PERCIVAL ALLEN

There was no shout of legions in array,
No sound of drum or tramping of doomed feet
That pass forever up the crowded street
To meet with death along the lonely way.
Out of the quiet of the perfect day
There came no cry of panic and retreat,
No faces aged and pallid with defeat
Fled from the field where dead and dying lay.
But in a garden where the roses bloom,
With sympathizing touch and clad in white,
A woman stooped to kiss a crippled child—
A stranger passed into a darkened room
To keep his vigil through a fevered night,
Whereat a tired face looked up and smiled.

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FILIPINO POLITICIANS AND INDEPENDENCE IN 1921

BY O. GARFIELD JONES

It is evident that one of the most important subjects to be considered seriously by the present Administration will be the future of the Philippines and the possibility of fixing a date for independence. The appointment of a new Governor-General to succeed Governor-General Cameron Forbes, who has done fine executive work in the Philippines, is supported by the argument that the President should be represented in the Philippines by one who shares his views as to independence. The Outlook commented on the appointment of Governor-General Harrison in its issue for September 6. The issue for September 27 will contain an illustrated article on Governor-General Forbes, by the author of the following article.—THE EDITORS.

TO be elected to the highest office at the disposal of your constituency, then sentenced to life imprisonment by an old acquaintance a few months later, is hard luck indeed, especially when you have been behaving yourself in the meanwhile. But such were the fortunes of Pajarillo, Diputado-elect to the Philippine Assembly in 1909, who was found guilty of murder in the first degree by Judge Abreu, a Filipino judge of the Court of First Instance.

Back in the insurrection days of 1901–4 Pajarillo had a paramour who unfortunately had a husband, but as Pajarillo was an "insurrecto" officer, such an obstacle was easily removed from his path. He called a squad of "insurrecto" followers early one morning and started for the house of his affinity. On nearing the place, the sister of the betrayed husband came running up to warn her brother of his danger. Pajarillo intercepted her and told her to stay away on pain of death. The paramour came to the window, talked with her lover a moment, then called her husband to the door. The husband, not even suspecting any danger, opened the door, and was met by a volley from the squad of "insurrectos."

The sister, who was an eye-witness of the murder from the other side of the street, succeeded in having Pajarillo tried by the Justice of the Peace and bound over to the Court of First Instance. A friendly prosecuting attorney, however, let the indictment remain on the docket for several years without bringing it to the attention of the Court. When Pajarillo ran for the Assembly in 1909, his political enemies took up the fight and called this affair to the attention of the American prosecuting attorney, who happened to have been sent to Capiz at that time to look after an entirely different case. An investigation followed, which showed that the indictment was on the docket all right. This American therefore went immediately to the scene of the crime to collect evidence. He found that Pajarillo simply owned that town, children, councilmen, and all. No one would say a word, although it was evident that they knew much. But American energy and resourcefulness soon dug up evidence in addition to the testimony of the murdered man's sister.

The case was to close on Wednesday. The star witnesses for the defense were to testify on Tuesday and prove a complete alibi. On Monday afternoon, however, the American prosecuting attorney had eight of the witnesses for the defense, who had already testified, arrested on the charge of perjury. Therefore, when the time came Tuesday afternoon for these star witnesses to testify and prove the alibi, they refused to say a word. In summing up the case the prosecuting attorney said the decision should be "hanging or acquittal," as there could be no doubt as to the nature of the crime. The Filipino judge rendered a verdict of murder in the first degree, but made the sentence life imprisonment out of consideration for the high office to which the murderer had just been elected!

It may seem strange to persons not familiar with Latin-American politics that such a man could be elected to so high an office. The following extracts from the recent anti-Imperialistic book "The American Occupation of the Philippines," by Judge James H. Blount, will clarify the situation: "Every native of the Philippine Islands is born with a highly developed social instinct either to command or to obey. The latter tendency is quite as common in the Philippines as the former is in the United States.

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The educated, patriotic Filipinos can control the masses of the people in their several districts as completely as a captain ever controlled a company." The author reiterates this docility of the masses to the demands of the few pseudo-aristocrats throughout his book, and points to it as proof of self-governing ability. He forgets that this willingness blindly to follow any leader is the reason why one dictatorship has followed another in rapid succession for the last ninety years in tropical Latin America. Blind obedience is not, however, an inherent class trait, but rather the result of ignorance and lack of training in self-control. In this same book the author goes on to say: "The war satisfied us all that Aguinaldo would have been a small edition of Porfirio Diaz, and that the Filipino republic-that-might-have-been would have been very decidedly a 'going concern,' although Aguinaldo probably would have been able to say with a degree of accuracy, as Diaz might have said in Mexico for so many years, 'The Republic? I am the Republic.'" In view of recent events in Mexico, the author should have added to Aguinaldo's stock of classic French the equally historic phrase, "After me the deluge."

Pajarillo was a fair sample of the Filipino politician. Not because he committed murder, for it is probable that murder is little more common in Philippine politics than in the politics of certain American cities; but because he was able for a number of years to close the mouths of an entire community. He had always treated the Americans so hospitably when they traveled through his town that they were shocked at the news of his arrest. The Filipinos were not at all surprised at the arrest, but they were fairly paralyzed by the conviction. Never before in the history of their community had a man so high up been actually convicted of so serious a crime.

The verdict was rendered late one afternoon, and the news reached the Americans at New Washington early the next morning. Native runners had evidently traveled all night to bring the news so quickly. No other one thing has ever made such an impression on the voters of that community. It is probable that not even the school system has done so much to increase the moral courage of the common man, the "Tao" of Capiz Province, as did this incident. And yet the American prosecuting attorney admitted that, had Pajarillo been wise enough to bring the case before the court when there was no one but that friendly native attorney to handle the prosecution, the perjuring witnesses would certainly have proved a complete alibi and Pajarillo would have been freed from the legal consequences of that crime. Absolute equality before the law is maintained only by the vigilance of the American officials as yet, but we have every reason for believing that example and precept will in time give the "New Filipino" a twentieth-century idea of both equity and justice.

The old Spanish-trained politicians of the Philippine Islands have long known how to lead the ignorant masses to suit their own personal ends, but they know *now* that they can *not* so lead the rising generation of educated Filipinos, of whom there are half a million in the public schools. It is therefore not to be wondered at that this old school of politicians is making one last frantic appeal for independence, as the next Philippine election will see the rising generation of American trained and educated voters in control. In the election last June they got control in Cavité Province, and elected a twenty-one-year-old Governor, who has been leading both the politicians and the administration a merry chase ever since. Even an educated electorate has its disadvantages when the voters are too young for the conservatism that comes only with age. This new generation dominates all the activities in which youth is no handicap. Eight thousand of them do all the teaching in the public schools below the high school, while more than one-third of the force of supervising teachers are now Filipinos, yet few of them have reached the voting age of twenty-one.

Many of the municipal treasurers are also products of the new public school system. Here, however, they come into direct conflict with the old politicians. A graduate of Calivo Intermediato School was sent as treasurer to Tapas municipality in Capiz Province in 1909. One of the political bosses of the town strolled around one day and offered him ten dollars to register a carabao for him without his having to show the original papers. All large live stock in the Philippines is described and registered on a regular legal certificate made out by the municipal treasurer, much the same as real estate is described and registered in the deed here in America, and the transfer of ownership of

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such live stock involves the legal transfer of these registration papers under the signature of the municipal treasurer. If this old political boss wanted his fields plowed, he called in some docile laborer to do the work on shares or by the day. "But," said the laborer, "I have no carabao." "Oh, well," replied the boss, "Alejandro Talisay has one" (Alejandro Talisay being some uninfluential object of the boss's disfavor). On the strength of this hint the laborer would steal the Talisay carabao the next night, bring it around to the municipal treasurer the next morning, and, on the recommendation of the political boss, this treasurer would make out a set of original papers showing that this laborer had legal ownership of that carabao. The new treasurer at Tapas, however, had absorbed certain Western ideas of honesty and justice during his years in the new Philippine schools, so he refused to be a party to this crime, bonus or no bonus. As a result of his honesty he was held up one night and given a terrible beating by some thugs, who told him that if he didn't tend to his own business they would clean him up. After trying to tend to his own business a while longer and getting another beating, he resigned that position and went back to teaching, where he could deal with Filipino children who had *not* been shaped and hardened in the school of Spanish colonial politics.

Where there is a direct conflict between the new ideals of the younger generation and the personal interests of these old politicians there is no doubt about the ability of the latter to crush out the former unless American supervision is right at hand to see that an equal chance is given to all. In Buruanga municipality, which is at the other end of Capiz Province from Tapas, the young American-trained treasurer was arrested on a trumped-up charge and refused bail in order that his political enemies might keep him from observing their political methods, as it was just about election time. This municipality was almost entirely "Nationalista," while the treasurer was of the opposite party. A shyster politician had made the false charges, and the justice of the peace had done the rest. The justice of the peace was really one of the best men in the community. His wrong-doing in this case was only a proof that it was not the man so much as it was the old system of Spanish colonial politics to which he had had to conform that was responsible. We might just as well expect our oldest politicians to abolish the "pork barrel" as to expect the older generation of Filipinos to run a clean government.

The end of this incident was comparatively uninteresting. The American supervising teacher arrived on the scene and threatened to report the justice of the peace and the mayor to the Internal Revenue authorities for detaining one of their agents. That was sufficient to secure the release of the young treasurer, but it did not do much to revive his courage, because he knew that he might be subjected to the same treatment over again just as soon as the American left town. He knew, as did the American supervisor, that the mayor of that town had refused to quarantine a certain cholera-infected village because he had a fish trap near there and he feared the quarantine might injure the sale of his fish. A young man fighting against odds has little reason for optimism when his opponents are such as that mayor.

The insistence of the Filipino *politicians* on complete independence might have some weight in spite of the difficulties involved in the granting of such autonomy, if it were not for the fact that complete independence now would be the greatest possible misfortune to the great mass of the Filipino people. An independent country situated as are the Philippine Islands must necessarily have close trade relations with China and Japan. In a very short time one or both of these nations would by trade discrimination or otherwise compel the Filipinos to abandon their Asiatic exclusion policy. Then the Mongolians would crowd in by the thousands and make the Philippine Islands a second Hawaii, Straits Settlements, or Java. All authorities agree that the Malay cannot compete on even terms with the Mongolian. Even to-day the native Hawaiian is disappearing in his own land more rapidly before the inroads of Japanese and Chinese than the Indian did before the white man in America. Already the Chinese dominate the small business of the Philippine Islands even in the most remote villages, although the Chinese coolie did not enter during Spanish times because of government restrictions and also because Philippine wages were then no higher than in China. To-day Philippine wages have more than doubled, consequently it will not take an immigration expert to estimate the results of an "open door" immigration policy in the Philippine Islands. The Filipinos realize their danger, and are there-

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fore heartily in favor of the present exclusion policy. Those few Filipinos who have taken the trouble to look into the future of an independent Philippine existence have deluded themselves into thinking that a little country of only eight million people could hold off a nation with four hundred million people on the west and at the same time hold off one of the great military powers of the world on the north by means of some combination of patriotism, heroism, and magic. American statesmen who cannot help but see the real factors involved in this situation must employ some clever sophistry indeed to show the relationship between "our abandonment of the Philippine Islands" and the "real welfare of the Filipino people." The argument that American occupation means "trust domination" falls in this same fallacious class. It is not yet clear to the ordinary American mind just how Filipino legislators having no experience with modern trust problems and public utility franchises are going to protect their people and their Government from capitalistic domination if American administrators born in the very midst of the fight against these modern evils cannot protect them.

Thus far in our history we Americans have been developers of countries but destroyers of peoples. In many, many cases our *laissez faire* dominated Government has simply penned up the Indian in his reservation and then left him to die in his squalor. The Hawaiians are now a vanishing race. Surely it is possible for the wealthy, democratic, idealistic American people to be a blessing to at least one foreign people.

Some pseudo-sociologist will say that we Anglo-Saxons can never develop a Malay people because we have too strong a race prejudice. That may sound all right, but it is contrary to fact. The extreme democracy of the American from the North or West puts him on a par with the more passionate but class-ridden Latin races when it comes to dealing with the Malays or Indians. There have been enough legal marriages between educated Americans and Filipino women to prove that our race prejudice is not sufficiently strong to prevent our understanding and appreciating the Oriental mind.

It cannot be maintained, therefore, that Americans lack ability to govern colonies. Our business sense has given the Filipinos the best government accounting and auditing system in the world. Our common sense and experience in large industry have given them a system of governmental supervision that is second to none. Our faith in the public schools has given them the only system of universal education ever instituted in the tropics.[1] Will we continue to be a blessing to the Filipinos as in the past ten years, or will we abandon them to their fate, as we did with the Indians for so many years? How many parents have yielded to the protests of their boy that he "would rather work than go to school"! And how many of these parents have lived to suffer the bitter reproaches of this same boy because they "did not make him get an education"! It was a great day when civilized society told its members that their children must be educated. It will be a greater day when the civilized members of the society of nations send forth the order that all nations must educate their children.

Many Filipino politicians do want independence, and they want it badly. In fact, it is not difficult to understand why they do not like American rule. They realize that American democratic ideas and ideals have hamstrung them completely. Boys who have learned to stand up for their rights on the ball field and to support themselves in the trade school will no longer be dominated by rich old uncles who can scarcely read or write, who know no amusement beyond the cock-fight, and who know no political methods but intrigue and brute force. Girls who surpass the American girl in enthusiasm for athletics and play basketball in bloomers before great crowds at Manila, girls who by industrial arts learned in the schools can earn more in a day than both their parents put together, will no longer kiss the fat hand of the priest and love as he dictates, will no longer permit a domineering father to marry them off to rich old misers or to profligate sons of influential families.

Universal education and romantic love are thus co-workers for democracy. The autocrat is losing his sway, the priest is losing his despotic power, and the *paterfamilias* is losing his *patria potestas*. Old people and old institutions hate progress anywhere, and look back with ever-increasing bitterness to the

[1] The "American Educational Review" for November, 1912, says: "A distinguished educator from one of our greatest universities, after his return from a lecture tour in the Philippine Islands, writes relative to the work of the Bureau of Education in the islands: 'The more I learn about the work of your Bureau, the more I think it is the most significant constructive work ever undertaken in any colony—or in its entirety in any State in our Union.'"

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time when "the three R's were taught as they should be" and when "virtue was not ashamed." The degree of hate is probably in direct proportion to the rate of progress, and nowhere else in the world has progress been so rapid as in the Philippine Islands within the last six years.

But it is equally easy to understand why the rising generation of Filipinos like the right kind of Americans. Ask them if they want to go back to the domination of the old school. Ask them if taxes would be honestly collected, public funds efficiently expended, the schools put first in the public policy and the children's welfare made the prime consideration if the United States should withdraw from the control of these islands. Of course some of these ambitious youngsters want offices that they cannot get, but that is true the world over. Ask the opinion of those who have had intimate relations with Filipino school-children during the last five years if you want to have your pessimism dispelled regarding the loyalty of the future leaders of the Philippine Islands. We never expected the Confederate veterans entirely to "forgive and forget," but no one to-day questions the high patriotism and genuine brotherly feeling of the "New South." And just as athletics, economic reorganization, and public education have laid the basis for the "greater New South," just so will the best organized school athletics in the world, the best industrial education yet put into practice,[1] and the first system of universal education ever inaugurated in the tropics, lay the foundation for a "New Philippines" whose capabilities no one can predict. Should these Filipinos develop full capacity for modern democratic government, our colonial experiment will have become one of the great landmarks of civilization. Having already disproved the theory that democracies are limited to small areas like the city republics of the past, our next step is to prove that democratic governing capacity is not limited to the white race. Democracy has failed in some parts of tropical Latin America because of the lack of steady training in local self-government, the lack of universal education, and the presence of political traditions inherited from Spain. The question now before those in control of our Philippine policy is whether we shall cut these tropical Malays adrift and let them acquire the same experience that tropical Latin America has had for ninety years, or whether we, with our centuries of experience in local self-government and universal education, shall continue teaching our little brown brothers what we have learned after so much travail, making the future of the Philippines a continuation of the marvelous progress of the last few years, so that the last days of our colonial history shall not be worse than the first.

A declaration by Congress that independence will be granted in 1921 or sooner will simply encourage this old school of Spanish-trained politicians to keep up the fight longer in the hope of getting some of the rich plums that will fall when they get complete control.

For Congress to make no declaration regarding independence, but simply make a thorough investigation to see that everything in the Philippines is being done efficiently, scientifically, and in good faith, will be to hasten the withdrawal of the Spanish-trained politicians and usher in the more democratic, more efficient, educated generation; because the old politicians know that they cannot compete with the new leaders very long if the Americans are going to stand by and see that elections are fair, government accounts honestly kept and audited, the courts kept open to the people, and all governmental activities carefully supervised by experts.[1]

[1] The "American Educational Review," November, 1912, says: "The Annual Report of the Director of Education of the Philippine Islands for 1912 seems to substantiate the conclusions as given to President Taft by a noted traveler and student of social conditions throughout the world who, on returning from a trip to the Philippines, told him that the Government is 'doing the most interesting and most promising piece of original work in education now in progress anywhere in the world.'"

[1] In response to an inquiry with regard to the desirability of a Congressional investigation of the Philippine Government, with the findings made public, an official of the Bureau of Insular Affairs and of the Philippine Government made the following reply: "If there is anything that the Bureau of Insular Affairs or the Philippine authorities have left undone to bring about the most thorough Congressional investigation possible, no one would appreciate it more than these same officials to be told what it is."

Appropriations for the proper entertaining of such a Congressional investigating committee have already been made by the Philippine Legislature in anticipation of favorable action by Congress in this matter.

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THE MAN BEHIND THE CHILD

BY GEORGE FREDERIC STRATTON

LAST year nearly half a million boys graduated from the grammar schools of the country. One-sixth of them went into the high schools; the rest, presumably, went to work.

For eight or nine years they had been in the school-rooms. For the last year or two each one had looked forward to graduation as his release from a preparatory stage—a release which, while meaning to some the entry into avenues of higher education, meant to a large proportion an entry into the battle of life.

It is a very interesting and important army—this half-million of husky youngsters; educated under the finest public school system in the world; bubbling over with the American spirit of independent achievement; each one headed for the Presidency—if not of the Government, at least of the nearest railway or manufacturing corporation.

There is a critical half-dozen of years ahead of them—a period which, for many, will determine their careers during the succeeding quarter or half a century. But they don't know it; if they did, they would view it with splendid confidence or splendid indifference, or both. It is the older heads that shake; the older brows that pucker; the older lips that say, "It is all wrong and tremendously risky to release these boys from school at this age."

There are three personalities interested in the futures of the boys—the parents, the schoolmen, and the employers. Of these the schoolmen have been, for the past ten years, the most active in efforts to induce a much greater proportion of the elementary school graduates to enter the high school courses.

It was for this purpose that manual training was introduced into the high schools, although many teachers have since discovered that such training has a distinct cultural value. Mr. Gilbert B. Morrison says: "It is interesting to observe that manual training, like other branches referred to, has its aim, and that aim is culture."

Dr. Frank Rollins, Principal of the Stuyvesant High School of New York, has said: "In the typical manual training school, manual training serves to supplement, rather than to supplant, scholastic or academic training. The great danger lies in the very popularity of the technical side of the school, which may tend to convert the broadly cultural courses of the present into narrow technical or trade courses."

While the results of manual training, purely as a cultural accessory to general education, are considered highly satisfactory by most of the instructors, the hoped-for increase in the attendance at the high schools has not occurred to any great extent. Eighty-one per cent of all the boys who left the grammar schools last year did not enter the high schools. Ten years before the percentage was eighty-three and one-half.

The whole fact is that, while the opportunity to get some workshop practice and to use tools carries a very strong appeal to almost every boy, it is not strong enough to overcome the several influences which draw him out into the world. At the age of fourteen the American boy appreciates, more than any other one thing, the purchasing power of money, and he is intensely eager to be earning and spending. He wants to be doing as other boys are doing—mixing with the real things of life and with the men who do things.

Added to this is the strong influence of the need of the parents. In the last report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor it is stated that over five thousand children under the age of fifteen years are engaged in manual occupations in that State; and that careful inquiry as to the condition of the families reveals the fact that, in the great majority of cases, the parents were utterly unable to allow their boys to enter the high schools and at the same time properly care for them and the other members of their families. In the cases of large families it has required great self-denial and sacrifice on the part of the parents to keep the several members through the grammar school course. Beyond that they cannot go.

This great phase of the whole trouble was very graphically expressed by a mechanic—a pattern-maker—who bears a character which is an honor to him:

"I have three boys and two girls; and, although my rate has been three dollars a day for a long time, there is always some lost time through the year. I don't average over sixteen dollars a week the year round, and it has taken all my income to keep my family in the way I think they should be kept. I believe in having a home for boys and girls

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that they'll be glad to come to and bring their young friends to. I think that's as important as their outside education. So you see that I haven't saved any money, except a trifling emergency fund.

"Now, in another ten years I'll be getting a bit old, and I propose to save a little against that time. If an old age pension came with the high school courses, I might think differently about them; but, as it is, my boys'll go to work as they leave grammar school—one of 'em's at work now—and give me a chance to look out for their mother and myself. I don't mean to make any profit out of them; I'll persuade them, if I can, to use some of their earnings in getting evening training, or maybe correspondence courses; but they've got to help themselves."

Taking advantage of an extensive acquaintance among the workmen and office force of a great manufacturing corporation, I obtained from one hundred of those men the reasons why their boys had ended their school careers with the grammar schools. My inquiries were made among lumpers, laborers, mechanics, and a few clerks; and were, of course, confined to those who had children. Seventy-four of those men stated that their wages did not enable them to send any boy to high school and at the same time properly care for the rest of the family. It was pointed out by a number of the men that boys arriving at the high school age require much larger expenditure for clothing and extras; also some little pocket money. I was enabled to ascertain the exact amount earned by these men during the preceding six months. It averaged $11.87 per week. Each one of them had to keep house and support from three to eight persons on his earnings.

In another group of eighteen, the fathers had placed their boys in jobs when they left the grammar schools, because such jobs were readily available and were considered excellent openings for them. Of these, six had apprenticed their sons in the works, an unusually fine apprentice system being in operation; the others were placed in offices or stores of acquaintances. The earnings of these eighteen men averaged higher than the preceding group, being $15.16 weekly.

The eight remaining stated frankly and bluntly that they had no use for the high schools. The opinion of one of them is characteristic:

"A boy learns nothing that will be of use to him as a workman. The manual training is all rot! They give the boys an hour and a half at it, once a week. A boy wouldn't learn anything of practical value that way in a whole lifetime. I don't want my boy wasting four years at that. I've got him into a good shop where he'll put in nine hours a day and learn something if he keeps his eyes open—same as I had to."

Among the numerous articles that have been published upon these vital subjects, most of which have been abundantly sympathetic with the children, the stern necessity of the parents has been entirely overlooked; or, if noticed at all, it has usually been in a spirit of stern criticism of those parents at alleged or assumed greed and selfishness at turning their children into mills and factories before their legal age of going to work. It has remained for the driest and most unobtrusive literature—the Report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics of Labor—to do justice to the Man behind the Child.

In noting the fact that nearly five thousand children under the age of fifteen years—four hundred being below the legal working age of fourteen years—are engaged in manual work in the State, the "Chief" says that from a collection of budgets received from 397 families he finds that the fathers do not earn enough to support their families; that they are forced to depend upon their children for from one-fourth to one-sixth of the total family earnings. The report states that of 515,833 wage-earners in the State, 309,075 earn an average of less than $7.50 per week.

In one of the great manufacturing plants, where eight thousand hands are employed, over twelve hundred are unskilled laborers. These men are paid a flat rate of fourteen cents per hour—$7.70 per week of fifty-five hours. This company has paid six per cent dividends for ten years past. It has twice during that period declared stock dividends of $14,000,000 and $16,000,000 respectively. In all, it has divided up profits in ten years amounting to a total of $45,000,000 upon a capitalization of $24,000,000.

It pays its lumpers fourteen cents an hour!

Among its stockholders are statesmen, philanthropists, and sociologists. Many of their wives are, undoubtedly, noble, large-hearted women, intensely interested in and indignant at the conditions of child labor. The living wage of the parents they know nothing about. But—their company pays its lumpers fourteen cents an hour.

The conditions with the great United States

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Steel Company in all its subsidiary plants is similar in kind, but far greater in quantity.

The Labor Commissioner of North Carolina, in a recent report, states that of the 40,000 employees of the cotton mills in his State—eight thousand of whom are children—the average daily earnings of the men and women, reckoning the total year's work, was *seventy-three cents.*

And he further states that, in his opinion, one reason for this atrocious living wage is the determination of the mill managers to compel the parents to bring the children into the mills, and thus secure the work they can do at the miserable pittance they pay—about one dollar and seventy-five cents per week.

In the other great industries in which child labor is ruthlessly employed—in the coal-breakers of Pennsylvania and the glass factories of Pittsburgh, and in the Ohio Valley—the condition of the fathers is similar. It is not so bad as in North Carolina nor so good as in Massachusetts. But, wherever men are employed at such wages as quoted, the children must work or suffer. The philanthropist or sociologist has yet to be born who can show that a man in a mill town can properly care for a family of from four to seven or eight persons on $7.50 a week in Massachusetts or $4.50 a week in North Carolina. If such a man's children may not earn, they must suffer the cruelest privations. It is harsh, but absolutely true.

Perhaps men ought not to be in that fourteen-cents-an-hour class; but they are there, lots of them—309,000 in the prosperous State of Massachusetts alone; and, being there, in the abject misery of unavailing endeavor to care rightly for families on their miserable allotment of living wage, they eagerly grasp any opportunity which, in their poor fourteen-cents-an-hour minds, affords their children a little more food and a little more clothing. From the view-point of an advanced social economist this may be greed, selfishness, and indifference. From the view-point of a layman it is the effort to adjust a fourteen-cent income to meet the promptings of a dollar heart.

Such men, for their children's sakes—to keep their small bodies fed and clothed—will, and do, evade the law.

Mrs. John Van Vorst recites the statement made to her by the overseer of a Southern cotton mill: "I have," he said, "a hundred kids in here who ought to be over twelve, but I sometimes have to ask the parents if they're bringing me triplets! They generally manage to have three between twelve and fourteen years old. Anything to get them in! But if they swear falsely, what can I do?"

Who can blame these parents? Who can say that they do not love their children, whom they would see hungry and half naked but for the few meager dollars which they earn in the mills? Heartsick and despairing themselves, they unhesitatingly add a couple of years to the child's age, and clutch at the earnings as a drowning man catches at a straw.

In all the articles which I have seen during the past year—articles eloquently sympathetic, trenchantly critical, and urgently insistent upon legislative restriction of child labor—not one thought is expressed as to the effect of such restriction upon the family earnings; of the consequences of substituting for a starved mind a starved body; of the additional load to be placed upon the sorely overloaded parent. The development of his children into good citizens, sound mentally, physically, and morally, can commence only when the father is able to let it commence; when he is in receipt of a living wage—when less watered stock is drawing fat dividends, and periodical stock-melons are honestly earned and honestly divided.

The noble men and women who are actively engaged in the crusade against the crime of child labor might well look a little deeper. The sympathy for those little ones should commence with the fathers—the logical bread-winners. There only will ever be found the true practical solution of the problem. To rescue the children from the factories means to curtail their already pitifully meager supply of necessities. The little chap who is picking out slate at the coal-breaker, or running errands in the factory, or tending a picker in the mill, is helping a father who sorely needs help. He is helping to fill the little pinched stomachs smaller and still smaller than his own; to shoe the frost-bitten little toes; to clothe the tender little limbs. His wages add forty per cent to his father's income. Forty per cent! What would forty per cent added to your income mean to you? Nay, rather, what would forty per cent deducted from your income mean to you? More or less than to the man of fourteen cents an hour? His duties are great. He is required to furnish the periodical stock-melon on fourteen cents an hour. He is advised to keep the baby-carriage full on fourteen cents an hour.

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He is expected to carry for fourteen years—some suggest fifteen years—the expense of developing our future citizens; nourishing their bodies and surrounding them with intellectual and moral influences on fourteen cents an hour.

This fourteen-cent man needs help, and needs it badly. Help for him will be help for his children. Would it be too much to suggest throwing a little limelight upon *his* condition and its chance for improvement; to turn for a moment from the misery of the children in the mills to the misery of the children in the homes; to turn from legislation for education to legislation for a living wage; to look into the possibility or impossibility of a man's raising, and presenting to the State, boys and girls well nourished in mind and body, and uncontaminated by factory environment, upon a weekly income of $7.50 in the North to $4.50 in the South?

Would it be improper to inquire why Captains of Industry—brainy, resourceful, indomitable, etc.—are unable so to regulate production costs and dividend demands as to afford a grown workingman a sufficient pittance to enable him to avoid both the Charybdis of race suicide and the Scylla of child labor?

THE NATURE OF SLEEP

BY H. ADDINGTON BRUCE

SLEEP has long been regarded as one of the most baffling of the many knotty problems that science has been called upon to solve. The scientist, of course, in common with the layman, has always recognized and appreciated its essentially beneficent character, so happily expressed in the words of the immortal Cervantes: "Blessings on him who invented sleep!—the mantle that covers all human thoughts; the food that appeases hunger; the drink that quenches thirst; the fire that warms; the cold that moderates heat; and, lastly, the general coin that purchases all things; the balance and weight that make the shepherd equal to the king and the simple to the wise." But, while recognizing the kindly and restorative rôle played by sleep in the scheme of animate existence, the scientist almost as much as the layman, until lately at all events, has been in the dark with respect to its nature and mechanism. Even the conditions that determine its production have been but vaguely and partially understood, with the result, as every doctor knows, that disorders of sleep still constitute a great stumbling-block in medical practice.

Science, in fact, has quite generally been content with describing its phenomena, as one may readily ascertain by examining the now voluminous literature on the subject. Even when explanations have been attempted they have usually resolved themselves into descriptions of states that accompany sleep rather than demonstrations of the factors that cause it. Thus, the investigations carried on by Durham, Hammond, Howell, Mosso, and others alleged to prove that cerebral anæmia, or deficiency of blood in the brain, is the great cause of sleep, really prove nothing more than that certain circulatory changes take place during sleep. Or if the theories advanced are truly explanatory—as is the case with the chemical and pathological theories which attribute sleep to a poisoning of the system by toxic substances that accumulate in the blood—they suffer from the serious objection that sleep often occurs under conditions in which the factors stressed cannot reasonably be assumed to have a part. Small wonder, therefore, that many writers have ventured on nothing more than an elaboration of the obvious, like Marie de Manacéïne, the Russian authority, whose theory of sleep is summed up in the distinctly non-explanatory phrase: "Sleep is the resting time of consciousness."

Recently, however, a decided advance has unquestionably been made in our understanding of this fundamental fact in the life both of man and of the lower animals. It is an advance due in part to the progress of biological and physiological research, but even more due to the extraordinary development of that youngest of the sciences, psychology, which in the past few years has made so many important contributions to the fund of human knowledge. Not a few of these, it is worth noting, have wholly or partly originated from the increased attention that the modern

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psychologist has paid to the realm of sleep. Our present appreciation of the marvelous extent to which one's intellect, one's character, and even one's health are affected by "subconscious" emotions and memories; our appreciation of the formative influence of the most trivial details in one's environment, and of the possibility of adjusting the environment in such a way as to make unfailingly for physical, mental, and moral upbuilding; our fuller comprehension of the principles that underlie and give validity to scientific "psychotherapy," or healing by suggestion, of which the medical fraternity is beginning to make systematic and effective use—all this has been largely due to recent psychological study of the phenomena that occur either in ordinary, "natural" sleep, or in those allied sleeping states induced by drugs or hypnotic procedures. Naturally enough, from studying the phenomena of sleep, the investigators have been led to study sleep itself, with results which, if they do not altogether dispel its mystery, have at least afforded clearer insight than ever before into its nature, significance, and causal conditions—matters of considerable practical as well as theoretical importance, particularly in this age of stress and strain with its imperative demand for the most efficient utilization of human resources and its equally inexorable tax on the human organism.

The great difficulty has always been to formulate an explanatory hypothesis which—excluding the various types of pseudo-sleep that manifestly result from abnormal conditions—would adequately account for the many strange anomalies presented by sleep. Any hypothesis to be satisfactory has to explain, for example, why sleep predominates over waking life in the case of the very young, why it has a smaller share in middle life, and why it tends in old age to become dominant once more, or, with no ill effects, to be even less in evidence than in the years of greatest virility. Any sound theory has to explain the seeming paradox between the periodical onset of sleep after exertion and its frequent withdrawal when the exertion has been at all excessive. It has also to explain the well-established fact that the amount of sleep required is by no means proportionate to the amount of intellectual or muscular effort previously expended, so that we often find men of intense mental or physical activity—for instance, Napoleon, Frederick the Great, Schiller, Humboldt, Mirabeau, the English surgeon John Hunter, and our own Thomas A. Edison—getting along very well with four or five hours' sleep a night, as compared with the eight or nine hours of less energetic individuals. Then, too, there is the familiar and most embarrassing occurrence of sleep in public places—the church, the theater, the opera-house—on the part of persons suffering neither from fatigue nor from any interruption to their regular night's rest; and, opposed to this, the chronic wakefulness of the insomniac in the dark and quiet of his home, utterly worn out yet unable to sleep.

These are only a few of the puzzling phases that have to be accounted for, and that have combined to baffle until now all efforts at a consistent and comprehensive explanation of sleep. But with the development of modern psychology, and, above all, with the increased appreciation it has enforced of the preponderating influence of the psychical factor in all aspects of human existence, real progress towards such an explanation has, as was said, been made. It is now known that sleep, contrary to the belief formerly so widely entertained, is no mere passive, negative state, the product of toxic or other deleterious elements, but is an active, positive function, a protective instinct of gradual evolution and dependent for its operation partly on the will and partly on the environment. It is the result of a certain reaction between the central nervous system and the stimuli impinging on it, its object being not so much the recuperation of the organism from the effects of the activities of the intervening period of waking life, as to save the organism from the destructive consequences of uninterrupted activity. "We sleep not because we are poisoned or exhausted, but so that we shall be neither poisoned nor exhausted," is the way one investigator puts it. In order for sleep to function, however, sundry requirements must be complied with, and it is not the least important outcome of the recent researches that, by the twofold method of experiment and observation, they have pretty definitely established just what these requirements are.

Particularly noteworthy in this respect are the experiments of an American psychologist, Boris Sidis, already well known for his contributions to the development of scientific psychotherapy. Indeed, his study of sleep was a direct outgrowth of his work in medical psychology, since it had as its starting-point the discovery that an ingenious tech-

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nique that he had devised for putting nervous patients into a "dissociated" state as a preliminary to psychotherapeutic treatment had the further effect, when prolonged, of causing them to fall asleep. This technique, which he calls hypnoidization, and which is something quite distinct from hypnotism, may best be described in his own words:

"The patient is asked to close his eyes and keep as quiet as possible, without, however, making any special effort to put himself in such a state. He is then asked to attend to some stimulus, such as reading or singing, or to the monotonous beats of a metronome. Or he may be asked to fixate his attention on some object, while at the same time listening to the beats of a metronome. His eyes are then closed, he is to keep very quiet, while the metronome or some other monotonous stimulus is continued. After some time, when his respiration and pulse are found somewhat lowered, he is asked to concentrate his attention on a subject closely relating to the symptoms of his malady. In other words, the patient is in a hypnoidal state, favorable to the emergence of subconscious memories."

Now, observing that the state thus induced was not only exceedingly unstable and transitory, but tended to result in a more or less profound sleep, Dr. Sidis conjectured that it might be identical with the "borderland" state through which it has long been known that people always pass when falling asleep. If this were the case, it could logically be inferred that the conditions essential to the causation of the hypnoidal state as outlined in the passage just quoted—that is to say, fixation followed by relaxation of the attention, limitation of voluntary movement, limitation of consciousness, and monotonous stimulation—were precisely the conditions operant in the production of sleep. His scientific curiosity and interest aroused, Dr. Sidis now began, in his own laboratory and in the laboratory of the Harvard Medical School, a long series of experiments on different animals—frogs, guinea-pigs, cats, and dogs—and on children of a few days to several years old, applying to each as far as was possible the conditions he had found favorable for the bringing about of the hypnoidal state in adult men and women.

In every case he discovered that when he limited the sensory impressions by closing the eyes, inhibiting voluntary movements, and applying a monotonous stimulus—such as a gentle stroking of the subject's body—there resulted a state closely analogous to the hypnoidal condition, and followed by a state of sleep. In the case of the children he further discovered that, as compared with adults, they reacted far more readily to the method employed, and this he saw reason to attribute to the inferiority of their mental development.

"This ease of induction of sleep," is the way he explains it, "is furthered by the comparatively small amount of variability of conscious activity present in the child—the variability of mental content being an important factor in keeping up the freshness, continuity, and qualitative intensity of consciousness. Now, as the child depends entirely for the variability of its consciousness on muscular activity and external impressions, we can well realize that when those sources become limited and monotonous the child falls under the influence of all the important conditions requisite for the induction of sleep. The child, in short, has no inner wealth of mental life to fall upon; it has little if any inner resources; that is why it falls an easy prey to sleep when the external resources lose their variability, become uniform and monotonous."

The longer he experimented the stronger became Dr. Sidis's conviction that in monotony we have the central fact in the causation of sleep. When we sleep we do so because our consciousness is no longer stimulated by a sufficient variety of sensations to keep us in a waking state. The variety, for that matter, may actually be present. But sensation-strain has fatigued our attention; for us, variety itself has temporarily become monotonous, and we fall asleep. Or if, when our customary sleeping-time arrives, we nevertheless find ourselves in an alert state, but feel that we ought to go to sleep, we proceed to put ourselves to sleep by a process that instinctively duplicates the conditions of experimental hypnoidization. That is, we undress and recline in bed, thereby markedly limiting our voluntary movements; we extinguish the light and close our eyes, limiting the sensorial field and producing the monotonous stimulation of darkness; we relax our attention, and presently we fall asleep.

Much the same view, which obviously makes sleep chiefly dependent on the character of the stimuli received by the consciousness, is maintained by other recent experimental students of the subject, especially the European scientists Verworn and Huebel. On the other hand, it has been sharply criti-

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cised by at least one investigator, another medical psychologist, Dr. I. H. Coriat, whose own experiments have led him to the conclusion that the main factor in the induction of sleep is the influence, not of monotonous stimuli, but of muscular relaxation. "When we relax, the motor phenomena become lessened, and this tends to produce drowsiness and finally sleep, due to a diminution of peripheral stimuli from the muscles to the brain, produced by the act of muscular relaxation." Dr. Coriat admits, however, that the muscular relaxation itself may result from a relaxation of the attention, and thus he still leaves the way open for the application of the monotony theory as explanatory of the sleeping state.

Moreover, it is possible to cite many instances of sleep occurring under conditions of muscular tension, as in the case of travelers falling asleep on horseback and soldiers on the march, without any diminution of their ability to ride and walk, carry their rifles in the proper position, keep in step, etc. W. A. Hammond, one of the earlier scientific investigators of sleep, testifies that he himself often slept on horseback, and specifically calls attention to the phenomenon of sleeping pedestrianism as exhibited by Galen and the Abbé Richard, the latter of whom "states that once when coming from the country, alone and on foot, sleep overtook him when he was more than half a league from town. He continued to walk, however, though soundly asleep, over an uneven and crooked road." Galen similarly walked more than two hundred yards while in a deep sleep, and "would probably have gone further but for the fact of his striking his foot against a stone and thus awaking."

Occurrences like these would be impossible if muscular relaxation really were fundamental to sleep. But they are quite compatible with the monotony theory, which indeed has the merit of offering a more complete and convincing explanation for the various anomalies of sleep than does any other theory. It finds also striking corroboration in facts of every-day observation, as well as in occasional happenings of an extraordinary character, which both reinforce it and are themselves difficult of explanation without resort to it.

Take, for example, the application of the theory to explain the somnolence of infancy by stressing the feebleness of intellectual development in the very young child and the consequent lack of diversity of its interests. The explanation hitherto usually advanced for this is that children sleep more than adults because they need more sleep as compensation for the strain of the growth process. If this were so it would follow that with the attainment of organic growth there would always be an appreciable diminution of the sleeping-time. But the fact actually is that certain types of adults—and these invariably persons of inferior intellectual development—tend, like children, to spend much of their lives in sleep.

Such is the case with idiots and imbeciles, and it is also the case with savages, who, as was long ago pointed out by Dugald Stewart, have a habit of falling asleep when their minds are unoccupied. So, too, that shrewd philosopher-statesman, Jefferson, recorded in his "Notes on Virginia:" "The existence of the Negro slaves in America appears to participate more of sensation than reflection. To this must be ascribed their disposition to sleep when abstracted from their diversions and unemployed in their labor." In this connection may well be cited also the experience of the unfortunate youth, Caspar Hauser, whose pathetic career has deservedly and for more than one reason been often made the subject of scientific discussion.

Caspar Hauser, to recall the facts as briefly as possble, was an unhappy German lad, kept prisoner in a dungeon from early childhood, in absolute solitude, and without so much as a glimpse of men, animals, the sky, the sun, the moon, the stars, or any other object in the external world. In 1828, at the age of seventeen or eighteen, he was taken from his place of confinement and turned adrift in the streets of Nuremberg. The charitable persons who took charge of him soon discovered that his mental state was little more advanced than that of a few-months-old baby, and that, like a baby, he easily and frequently fell asleep. It seemed impossible for him to remain awake after sunset, and in the daytime to take him outdoors was enough to plunge him into a deep sleep, even in a roughly jolting vehicle. Says one of his teachers, writing some months after his mysterious appearance in Nuremberg:

"Caspar sinks, even yet, whenever he rides in a carriage or a wagon, into a kind of death sleep, from which he does not easily awake, whether the vehicle stops or rolls on; and in this state, how roughly soever it may be done, he may be lifted up or laid down and packed or unpacked without his having

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the least perception of it. When sleep has once laid hold of him, no noise, no sound, no report, no thunder, is loud enough to wake him."

Here, clearly, is the case of a youth long past the age of infancy, and experiencing not at all the need of sleep as an aid to bodily growth, yet sleeping as an infant sleeps. Only by assuming that both in his case and in that of the ordinary babe the determining factor is at bottom the paucity of the mental life, quickly rendering all stimuli monotonous by reason of inability to differentiate and be intelligently interested in them, is it possible, it seems to me, to arrive at a consistent explanation.

In like manner the monotony theory enables us as nothing else does to understand the enormous variations in the time taken for sleep by adults of approximately similar physical constitutions. It surely is no mere coincidence that, as common observation shows, the men and women who habitually, and without untoward consequences, take a shorter night's rest than the majority of their fellows, are men and women of unusual intellectual keenness and a wide range of interests. Such people are seldom "bored;" they find food for thought and entertainment in everything; they are alive in every way. And, unless disease weakens their elasticity of mind, they retain even in extreme old age the ability to do with less sleep than other people. Whereas it is equally a commonplace of observation that persons of inferior intellectual activity or of a comparatively limited mental outlook, persons whose lives are cast in a dull routine, are as a rule inclined to indulge in exceptionally long periods of sleep, like the proverbial farmer who "goes to bed with the hens." That they do so, it may safely be affirmed, is because the stimuli of their environment more readily become tedious and monotonous to them, and they sleep as a defense reaction against ennui.

All of which would suggest, of course, that most of us sleep longer than is really necessary. Personally I have no doubt that this is the case. It has been experimentally shown that, even following protracted vigils, a surprisingly small amount of sleep is needed to effect complete recuperation. In one particularly interesting set of experiments, made some years ago by Drs. Patrick and Gilbert in the psychological laboratory of the University of Iowa, three members of the teaching staff were kept continuously awake for about ninety hours. Being then allowed to go to bed, they found it necessary to make up only from 16 to 35 per cent of the time lost from sleep. Students of sleep are agreed, in fact, that it is the quality of sleep that counts rather than the amount, and that certain dangers, physical and mental, attend the development of an undue "sleep habit." To quote Marie de Manacéïne, who has given special attention to this aspect of the sleep problem:

"If a man sleeps longer than the repose of consciousness and the repair of the tissues require, there will, in the first place, be an enfeeblement of consciousness from lack of exercise; and, in the second place, an adaptation of the vessels to an abnormal state of the nutritive circulation, to the detriment of the functional circulation. Consequently we may have ground to apprehend trouble in the respiratory exchange and an over-production of carbonic acid—not a matter of indifference to the organism, which may sooner or later be injured thereby."

For these reasons Madame de Manacéïne strongly, and justly, deprecates the practice indulged in by too many nurses, and even mothers, of artificially prolonging the sleep of their children out of a selfish desire to have more time to themselves; and she approvingly recites the familiar German saying, "He has been rocked into stupidity," as epigrammatically expressive of something more than a mere witticism. Nevertheless, if at every age of life it is important to guard against any tendency to excessive sleep, and if there is reason to believe that the majority of people sleep more than is actually necessary, it would be highly imprudent to advise any arbitrary shortening of the hours of sleep. This can safely be achieved only through the gradual process of consciously or unconsciously habituating the mind to act more vigorously and expansively—a process which seems to have the dual effect of prolonging the waking period and at the same time of prolonging it without injury to the organism. No doubt this is partly due to an improvement in the quality of the sleep taken, but it must also be due in part to a positive strengthening of the constitution by an increased exercise of the mental powers, a view borne out by the interesting circumstance that the great thinkers of the world—the Spencers, Gladstones, and Franklins—have generally been long-lived, notwithstanding that in many cases they were of frail physique in youth.

But to develop a shorter sleep habit with-

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out basing it on an increase in mental development can have only disastrous effects, for the reason that an excessive strain will necessarily be imposed on a brain accustomed to function actively only so many hours each day. That is why, however true it may be to say that four or five hours' sleep should be enough for any man, most men at present require a much longer sleeping-time, and will continue to require it until, with the progress of educational reforms, a maximal brain development shall happily become the rule, not the exception. Even then there must go apace with increase in mental activity an increased power of moral control—a power which will enable men to think hard but calmly, to meet the vicissitudes of life with fortitude, to withstand all incentives to impatience, anxiety, worry. Otherwise the greater activity of their minds will inevitably become a source of positive danger, by rendering them easy victims to that cerebral over-stimulation which leads not to too much sleep but to too little.

And, after all, in this civilization of ours, so complex and so fraught with occasions for psychical excitement, the great problem is not how to cut down the period of sleep but how to make sure of getting enough of it. Somebody has called insomnia the curse of the age, and whatever of exaggeration there may be in such a statement, certain it is that the world is full of sufferers from chronic sleeplessness. To these the results of the latest researches into the conditions requisite for the causation of sleep are obviously of great personal importance.

If it be true that by observing the conditions of limitation of voluntary movement, limitation of consciousness, relaxation of the attention, and monotonous stimulation, a state can be induced that will ordinarily pass into a state of profound sleep, it at once follows that a powerful weapon is available for use in the warfare against insomnia. Specialists like Dr. Sidis are, in point of fact, now making daily use of this method of hypnoidization, and report most satisfactory results. What happens is that it soon breaks down the habit of wakefulness and substitutes a salutary habit of regular sleep. Best of all, as I can testify from personal experiment, it is a method susceptible of application by insomniacs themselves, and certain to have beneficial results when, as is usually the case, the insomnia is a purely functional ailment.

In self-hypnoidization anything that will produce a monotonous sound—such as a clock or a watch—may be used instead of the metronome of the specialists. Or a visual instead of an auditory stimulus may be employed. This latter is the method I myself prefer, and which I make use of whenever I am troubled with wakefulness. In using it, all one has to do is to assume a comfortable position in bed, remain perfectly motionless, and, selecting some spot on the bedroom wall—any fragmentary image, however faintly discernible in the light of the moon or other outside illuminant—gaze at it, not intently, but with the eyes half-open, in such a way that it appears to be remote and indistinct.

Observing faithfully the conditions of inhibition of movement and fixity of gaze, with limitation of consciousness by allowing the mind to think only of the spot at which one is looking, the eyes will soon grow heavy and close. The effort should then be made to open them and gaze at the spot on the wall as before. Presently they will again close of themselves, and in a very short time it will be found impossible to open them, for the experimenter will be asleep.

The success which I have personally experienced, and which I have observed in the case of others who have used this method, satisfies me not only that it is a reliable cure for all ordinary insomnias, but that it corroborates the theory of sleep based on the laboratory study of the hypnoidal state—that, to sum up in the words of Dr. Sidis:

"Sleep is not a disease, not a pathological process due to the accumulation of toxic products in the brain or in the system generally. Sleep is not an abnormal condition, it is a normal state. Like the waking states, sleep states are part and parcel of the life-existence of the individual. Waking and sleeping are intimately related—they are two different manifestations of one and the same life-process—one is as normal and healthy as the other. One cannot help agreeing with Claperède's biological view that sleep is a positive function of the organism, that sleep belongs to the fundamental instincts. As Claperède forcibly puts it: 'Sleep is a protective function, an instinct having for end, in striking the animal with inertia, to prevent it from arriving at a condition of exhaustion. We sleep, not because we are poisoned or exhausted, but so that we shall be neither poisoned nor exhausted.'"

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REVOLUTION AND THE MUD PIE

BY LUCIEN PRICE

THIS subject is delicate and difficult. Mud pies. More important than you might suppose. The mud pies of literature, art, politics, music, commerce—the mud pies of life itself—a business that is universal and eternal. We are all interested in it. Some of us are actually engaged in the industry and happy if we are, for to be making mud pies is to be on the winning side. First, let me explain what a mud pie is.

Walking in a park on a mild afternoon, what was my astonishment to see a tiny, blue-velvet-jerkined gentleman rapturously messing in the nice, fresh, oozy mud. I knew instantly what he was making. Pies. My first impulse was to get down beside him and join the game, as of old. My next was to snatch him out of the mire and clean him at the adjacent drinking fountain before his French nurse, who was twittering her native tongue with a sister of her race, could notice what was going on and give the shriek of horror which would be the excuse for walloping the young radical. Then something happened that made me keep hands off—something that enormously complicated the situation. Off to one side of the mud pie (and obviously the property of the maker) was an elaborate toy automobile. On a guess, it must have cost fifteen dollars. And although I remember perfectly well what R. L. S. has said about child's play, yet, recalling the probable rapture of nine children out of ten over such a toy, I was mystified. A fifteen-dollar plaything versus a mud pie. But I was not mystified for very long. Presently the mud pie began to grow. It grew until it included all sorts of current ructions—bomb-tossings, window-smashings, riot calls, art controversies, and turbulent audiences at first performances of new symphonies, not to mention revolutions, wars, and naval appropriation bills. The upshot of it was that these mud pies on a world scale so obscured the performance of the little pundit boy in the park that I left him to catch his spanking in behalf of the advancement of human thought (which is the way of the world), if that is any comfort to him as he eats his supper off the nursery mantel-shelf. For the spanking is a part of the mud pie, of which more presently.

We are now ready to consider the great and eternal mud pies of this life. Listen well.

There is, normally, always about so much kicking-power in the world. A scientist might call it human kinetic energy. It is, like all force, excellent; but its excellence depends largely on the direction in which it is exerted. All of us must have noticed, at one time or another, quantities of good, vigorous protest which were going to waste for the want of the right thing against which to fulminate—sturdy fists which seemed never to find just the right solar plexus. It was a sad sight. Splendid folk—they could have led a carmagnole or heaped a barricade had they been born into the right nation and age, and now here they are wasting their gunpowder, sputtering and scolding at the church, or the family unit, or the milk inspection, or Anglomania, or marriage, or the decline of the drama, or anything high-brow and unimportant. All this splendid energy and nothing for it to do; wheels and shafting driven full speed and not a belt in the factory; propellers madly thrashing and the vessel in dry-dock.

Dry-dock. This is where society gets, once in so often. A necessary sojourn, no doubt, for scraping and painting, but we have fancy names for it which deceive people who should know better. One favorite description is: "An era of unparalleled material prosperity," meaning that officers and crew are lazing, eating double rations, and growing totally unfit for, besides disinclined to, active sea duty.

Regularly, you will find by a glance at history, human society comes to a point where it is heartily sick of rotting at the wharf. What if the old hulk be crazy? Make her sink or sail. What if officers and crew are wheezy and doped? Make them get on their sea legs once more. "Launch out into the deep." Away with all these smooth and plausible formulæ—the dead inheritance of an age that is scarcely more dead than ours. Away with the boasted perfection of the present order. By the Eternal, are we passengers on this craft of Time, or are we working our passage? Those charts are outdated. That sand-bar has shifted two miles and built up another three fathoms since

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the last survey. A keel may have floated there once, but woe to the craft that attempts that channel now! Yet the statesmen of yesterday found it perfectly safe; and the statesmen of to-day proclaim it still the same.

True. Old Gloriana turns out pagan marbles beautifully smooth—flawless; he is the "faultless painter" in the same sterile sense as Andrea del Sarto. Away with him! What have we to do with placid marble fauns? Give us blue clay. We will model crude shapes but contemporary. We will fashion things in the rough. Let another age smooth down their jagged edges. Give us reality, if at the price of ugliness; we accept the bargain.

And so we have Rodin. Mud pies? Bless you, when he had finished his rude, barbaric statue of Balzac, those were the very words that were hurled at his imperturbable head by the uncomprehending critics. Mud pies! and never pronounced critic a word more true nor a eulogy more just. Rodin goes at a masterpiece in the mud pie method. Shaw describes the process:

> Rodin plodded along exactly as if he were a river god doing a job of wall building in a garden for three or four francs a day. . . . If the bust's nose was too long he sliced a bit out of it, jammed the tip of it up to close the gap, with no more emotion or affectation than a glazier putting in a window-pane. If the ear was in the wrong place, he cut it off and slapped it into its right place, excusing these cold-blooded mutilations to my wife (who half expected to see the already terribly animated clay bleed) by remarking that it was shorter than to make a new ear.

You dislike Rodin. "His figures look too much like real people." (O subtlest of flatteries—the unintentional.) "They are not pretty." "They are not like the Greeks." (Pardon. They are the most so of anything in the modern world.) "They are too photographic to be art." Well and good. But do you agree that they are mud pies? You certainly do? Very well. That is all they are designed to be. And that is quite triumph enough. Concede the mud pie, and you have conceded the whole case.

Up and down the land stalks an exhibition of pictures, execrated, patronized, and derided. Their origins have been traced to everything from drugs to the madhouse. The collection has been denounced as a stupendous practical joke, as obscene, hailed as prophetic of a new era of art, dismissed as childish and idiotic. Yet through all this grunting and squealing there have been a few who have kept severely still themselves and listened with all their ears, meantime watching with all their eyes. They were those who remembered the muck which was flung at Wagner in the seventies; they remembered, farther back, the distinguished violoncellist, Romberg, who contemptuously turned his part of Beethoven's latest quartets wrong side up on his music-stand, remarking that it sounded the same either way. (Romberg's violoncello concertos are to-day found useful chiefly in training the technique of young 'cellists.) They were those who remembered the persecutions of Rembrandt, the mediæval scientists burned at the stake for declaring the convexity of the earth's surface, and the Athenians (and an endless gabble of scholars since) who seriously questioned the greatness of Euripides because he forsook Olympus and brought the drama among living men—because he was, in short, an apostle of revolt. They remembered that as often as the heathen rage at a new thing the joke is in the end invariably on the heathen. Innovation must ride over the spite fences of the timid and conservative. Change means readjustment. Readjustment means discomfort, effort, pain. Only the healthy enjoy effort; few are able to bear pain steadfastly. The others resist or flee. The new generation must march over the old. To any one with mental doors never so little open a few sentences from the Futurists' Manifesto make the purpose clear enough:

> That we condemn all forms of imitation and glorify all forms of originality.
>
> That we revolt against the tyranny of the words "harmony" and "good taste" . . . with which the works of Rembrandt, Rodin, and Goya could be demolished.
>
> That we must consider as an honor the nickname of "crazy," with which innovators have always been gagged.

Which is to say, with Columbus, Ibsen, Mahomet, Goethe, Walt Whitman, Prometheus, and others: "We don't know where we're going, but we're on our way"—the noblest philosophy that we humans can pretend to, and the most eternal—the eternal challenge of the unknown. Mud pies, my friends. We begin to recognize them under their numerous disguises. We begin to perceive the antiquity and the dignity of the mud pie—discontent with the lifeless and the easy, the struggle for life, and the difficult change.

Now it was only the other day that they were wondering what ailed the orchestra.

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They said it had suddenly gone off its head. (They said that ten years ago when Richard Strauss was new, though they are beginning to hesitate about him now.) They said they thought the orchestra had begun to sound like anarchy scored in fifty different keys. Of course it is just possible that this is what they were intended to think.

The secret is that the symphonists are growing discontented with their instrument; outgrowing it. The orchestra is fearsomely formal. It is the most arbitrary of the art forms. There are so many things which you must not do that the history of the development of symphonic music is the history of those who did them anyhow. It has developed through a century and a half into a mechanism so complicated that years of study are necessary before the simplest idea can be expressed through this medium. Here is a channel so troublous that through it only the great minds can flow. Well, and these great minds have begun to overflow the old stream-bed. They roar along the rocky sides of the gorge, higher and higher, until they flood the broad countryside. The horns are augmented; the strings are doubled; a chorus is added, then four harps, pianoforte, organ, celesta, and wind-machine. The streams of music have burst their old dikes and are away carving new courses. When the flood subsides—mud pies, my friends, mud pies. Or, as M. Rolland said of Jean-Christophe when that composer had sloughed the dead skin of his sterile technical mastery, his new music was

"Chaos shining through the veil of order"—

which is virtually what the more discerning reported of Sibelius's Fourth Symphony when it was performed in England a few months ago. As for Korngold and Schoenberg, who that reads the present by the gleam of the past has failed to perceive that they are to-day where Debussy and d'Indy were a dozen years ago, and Cesar Franck before them? It is not at all a stretch of the imagination to predict that the orchestra as we know it will be altogether supplanted, virtually discarded. On a May evening, stand on an ocean beach under a row of willows. A lazy surf grinds the pebbles in slow-swinging rhythm; frogs lift their shrill sweet piping from the marsh bottom; a roaring north wind whips the willow switches, and a moon pours molten silver on the sea. This is music to which the orchestra even of Beethoven and Sibelius is as a dead thing, pale and cold and stark. This is the music to which the orchestra of the future must aspire, even by the invention of new instruments. The Symphony of Night; a tone-poem of the sleeping woods on a summer noon; the harsh dissonances of a city street . . . Music of the future . . . Mud pies.

As for letters, the whole history of literature has been the history of the mud pie. Just the instant literature becomes anything else, it ceases to be literature. Science is the quest of the ultimate mud pie in matter; philosophy is the quest of the ultimate mud pie of the mind. Literature is the history of these quests. Luckily for us, it was never more rich in mud pie experts than it is to-day,—Strindberg, Tolstoy, Echegaray, Zola, Wells, Rolland, Brieux, Chesterton, Masefield, Galsworthy. Appended is a small but powerful mud pie from the hand of Nietzsche:

> Every one who has hitherto overthrown a law of established morality has always been considered at first as a *wicked man;* but when it was afterwards found impossible to re-establish the law, and people gradually became accustomed to the change, the epithet was changed by slow degrees. History deals almost exclusively with these *wicked men,* who later came to be recognized as *good men.*

Leaving us to gather by inference that one epithet is quite as shandy-gaff as the other. A slice of the same pie as served by Mr. Shaw is,

> If a great man could make us understand him, we should hang him.

Is it a superfluous irony to add that

> When he does, we do?

Of course it is clear to any one of average intellect that foremost among the "great men" referred to (who are also the "wicked men," and later the "good men," of Nietzsche's paragraph) are the makers of mud pies—which they are hanged for making.

The councils of the underworld are swayed by such mud pie artists to-day, and not a few of them have come thrillingly near to hanging; two were in jail in Salem not six months ago—Ettor and Giovanitti, artists of industrial mud pies. Not two months ago another was in an English jail—Mrs. Pankhurst, chief sculptress of feminist mud pies. Mud pie statecraft is abroad in the world. Europe is experimenting in this art form; Turkey has tried it, and China—and men say that the mud and water is already mixed for the pouring in Russia. In our own fair land of unrestricted free speech (barring interference by

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the police of a mill city) we have observed the rise of a new labor party which proposes not only to revolutionize industry but to revise the ethical code in the process. Thus the announcement:

> In his choice of weapons to fight his capitalist enemies the syndicalist is no more careful to select those that are "fair," "just," or "civilized" than is a householder attacked in the night by a burglar. He knows he is engaged in a life-and-death struggle with an absolutely lawless and unscrupulous enemy, and considers his tactics only from the standpoint of their effectiveness. With him the end justifies the means. He knows that the laws, as well as the current code of morals, are made by his mortal enemies, and considers himself about as much bound by them as a householder would himself by regulations concerning burglary adopted by an association of housebreakers. From long experience he has learned that the so-called legal and inalienable "rights" of man are but pretenses with which to deceive workingmen; that in reality "rights" are enjoyed only by those capable of enforcing them.

Here the mud pie artist has achieved philosophy herself. He is examining into the truth or falsity of the ideas on which the modern world does business, applying to them the pitiless commercial test of whether they are or are not "efficient;" a test which, it appears, will cut both ways.

Mud pies, . . . the eternal, recurring history of men and movements. And the thing is catching. Even the enemies of the mud pie makers are drawn into the employment. They may refuse to m-a-k-e mud pies, but they can never resist the itch to t-h-r-o-w them. Various names have been found for this pelting: vilification, abuse, opposition, protecting society, preserving order, saving the laws and institutions of the country, suppressing violence.

This is why I do not regret having left the little boy in the park to catch his spanking. We must all pay for our joy of creating (mud pies) by a spanking from authority. So if the little fellow had a talent for the mud pies of life, it was wise and kind to get him accustomed to spanking early in his career. Thus, later, he may not mind being hanged.

THE SPECTATOR

"I SHOULDN'T be inclined to criticise Mr. Bok's young collegians very severely," said the veteran proof-reader to the Spectator (referring to the articles in The Outlook for August 9, August 30, and September 6), "on account of their inability to write a business letter in good English. How many experienced business men themselves, when you come down to it, are able to perform that seemingly simple feat? Aren't their typists always making kindly suggestions to them about the grammatical form of their phrases, or correcting them without any suggestion—as well as contributing errors of their own to the typewriting, which the business men in their turn generally overlook when they hastily put their signatures to their letters? I tell you, Mr. Spectator, nobody can write a letter perfectly on the first draft. Those very college boys and girls, if they had been taught always to read over their letters after they were written, to correct the mistakes and infelicities, verify the spelling, clarify the obscurities, polish them up generally, and then take the trouble to rewrite them, would make a much better showing than they do in Mr. Bok's tables.

"The fact is," went on the proof-reader, "the ablest of our writers are unable to express themselves, offhand, as they wish to appear in print. No doubt Goold Brown himself, the prince of grammarians, found plenty of errors to correct when he read his proofs. I don't mean printers' errors, but errors in his grammar and diction. And certainly, if he did, all the rest of the writing men have followed him. You know the story of Balzac's proofs? 'From every substantive, verb, and adjective that he had written rose a thin rocket-line of ink, to burst at its end into a coruscation of new substantives, verbs, and adjectives that he preferred to the ones that he had at first thought so good.' And no doubt a lot of these changes, let me say with due modesty, were suggested to him by the vigilant proof-reader. Speaking of changes suggested by the proof-reader, probably Mr. Bok himself, in sending his article to press—but never mind that."

"How does the proof-reader help toward getting articles printed in correct English—or French?" asked the Spectator. "I thought

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his province was to correct the errors—and they are supposed to be numerous enough—that the printer makes in setting up the types."

"That is a very narrow view of the function of a good proof-reader," was the answer, "and yet it is a view, unfortunately, that is increasingly being taken by the younger members of my profession. The other day a young reader whom I employed as an assistant said to me, when I called his attention to the fact that he had 'passed' a grammatical error, 'But it was in the copy of a famous writer, and if he didn't know enough to write correctly, how can you expect me to know?' The old idea of a competent proof-reader was that he was a keen grammarian, a 'close' punctuator, a perfect speller, and a man of wide reading and of encyclopædic knowledge as to names, dates, and the minutiæ, generally, of literary form. If anything was doubtful in the author's style or statements, the omniscient proof-reader made a 'query' in the margin of the proof, and so brought the author's attention to the matter. The new idea seems to be that 'it's up to the author' to send in perfect manuscript, and that the proof-reader's duty ends when he has 'followed his copy.' The old proof-reader had for his ideal the exact scholar; the new one is, I fear, satisfied with being a mechanician.

"To a large extent," the veteran corrector of the press went on, "the change is due to the introduction of two machines—the typewriter and the linotype. The first has lessened the necessity for the printer's being equipped with a head for deciphering bad manuscript. The old-time editors who wrote an illegible hand, of whom Horace Greeley is the most famous example, have nearly all passed away, and those who are left—and I hope they will long remain with us, for the old printers love the old editors—usually dictate their editorials to a typist and have them printed in characters that nobody can misread. The linotype, on the other hand, has tended to minimize the proof-reader's work as being unnecessary. This machine, in the first place, sets type more correctly than can be done by hand, and, in the second place, corrections in linotype matter are discouraged as being unprofitable, because they prevent the machine from being used for productive work. In the old days the compositor rectified his errors at his own expense, and if he set up 'The melancholy Dave' for 'The melancholy Dane,' or 'the arch fiend' for 'the arch fund,' he was merely laughed at for his stupidity; now he gets fired for wasting his employer's time. Corrections are now made on the time of the 'office,' and so the best proof-reader as well as the best compositor is he who causes the least loss of time in making corrections. The result has been that the old-fashioned proof-reader, with his finicky notions as to accuracy, has largely been displaced by the new men who enable the office to 'get away with it,' or to make the author pay for correcting any errors that he may have the wit to discover in his proofs."

The Spectator sympathizes with his friend the proof-reader in regretting the changed ideals of a singularly useful profession, but he sees some crumbs of comfort in the situation. If the standards of the proof-reader are less exacting, those of the compositor have risen. The man who sets a "foul proof" cannot be tolerated on the machines; and certainly the bright, smart-looking young men that one usually sees at the linotypes are of a higher grade than the average compositor who used to "sling type" on the daily papers. The necessity for having good copy in order to make the machines profitable has, on the other hand, tended to make writers more careful in preparing their hand-written manuscript and in revising their type-written copy. The day of the carelessly written, illegible manuscript has nearly passed, and with it the printer painfully puzzling with knitted brows over the question whether the doubtful word is "risen" or "rosin," "moral" or "rural," "doctrine" or "decline," or whether the doubtful phrase is "bosses of the democratic party" or "the lovers of domestic purity."

The Spectator, in conclusion, however, is free to say that he believes that there is still enough illegible or ill-prepared manuscript in circulation to make the really competent, old-fashioned proof-reader, with his ancient ideals of orthographical accuracy, grammatical correctness, and careful punctuation, with his ability to decipher "blind" handwriting and to see the flaw in the careless statement or the inconsistency or redundancy in the successive chapters of the famous author's masterpiece, a helper that is sought with much assiduity by publishers and printers.

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THE NEW BOOKS

Way of Ambition (The). By Robert Hichens. The F. A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.35.

Although Mr. Hichens's new novel has its scene in part in Algeria, it is not a colorful Eastern romance; neither is it a tale of fierce passion, as some of his novels have been; nor has it (and for this one is thankful) any touch of that abnormality that was distasteful in his earlier work to many admirers of his talent. So much negatively; positively, this book is a close study of a singularly interesting situation in the lives of two people: one is a man of original musical genius of a type off the beaten track, the other a young girl of high ambition who marries him partly because she loves him, partly because she is imbued with the idea of making him great and famous. He not only does not care for success or fame, but is even morbidly averse to putting his work before the public. By persuasion and subtle influence his wife leads him on to write an opera—the last thing in the world his genius is suited for; it is performed in New York; is a total failure; and out of this failure the wife learns that love and ambition cannot force the note for another's spirit, the husband learns to turn his genius into its own channels, not secretly and selfishly, but for the world, and both learn what real, self-respecting love should be. This simple idea is wrought out with extreme delicacy, with broad knowledge of English social, art, and intellectual circles, and with as fine literary workmanship as one often sees. The story is not didactic nor super-philosophical; it is drama, but drama of the mind and heart rather than of action.

Jackknife Man (The). By Ellis Parker Butler. The Century Company, New York. $1.25.

This little story has in a very high degree two qualities that appeal to readers—in the first place, it is humorous, and humorous too in a quite original vein; and, in the second place, it offers a warm-hearted but not sentimental presentation of a pathetic situation. The Jackknife Man himself is a kind-hearted, sweet-natured, shiftless old chap who has a delightful little boy thrown on his hands. The toys he whittles out for Buddy have such fun and cleverness in them that in time they come to be much sought for by purchasers. The tale is quite unconventional, and its characters are brimful of human nature.

Diamond Cut Diamond. By Jane Bunker. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis. $1.25.

This is a story of crime and mystery resembling to some extent the work of Mrs. Rinehart, in that the story is told by a middle-aged single woman who sees the humorous side of things even in the troubles in which she becomes involved through no fault of her own. The book is amusing as well as exciting, and thus it belongs to the new type of crime-story; the old type, as with the tales of Anna Katherine Green, was intensely lugubrious.

Lorna Doone. By R. D. Blackmore. The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $2.50.

Excursions. By Henry D. Thoreau. The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $2.

Parsifal. By Richard Wagner. The Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York. $6.

The approach of the holiday season is heralded to the reviewer by the receipt of the advance guard of the host of illustrated and decorated volumes especially intended for presentation. Of the three volumes whose titles are given above, two are favorite works of which almost every year sees a new edition. Mr. Blackmore's famous romance of Exmoor is offered in a large single volume with sixteen colored pictures by Christopher Clark. In any form this is a story which may be read and re-read without diminution of pleasure. Thoreau's "Excursions" has another new edition in worthy form, illustrated this time by Mr. Clifton Johnson, whose photographic work we have very often praised in these columns; and he has the utmost sympathy with Thoreau's moods and love of out-of-doors. The introduction consists of Emerson's biographical sketch and particularly belongs with this book. The third volume is an illuminated and decorated translation or retelling of "Parsifal." The art work is by Willy Pogány; his work extends not merely to the sixteen full-page colored illustrations and the decorations, but even to the lettering of the text-page itself. Every page of the book has been reproduced by lithograph in two colors. Pogány is a brilliant young artist whose work in connection with the sumptuous edition of "The Legend of the Holy Grail" obtained high praise. He enters into the mystical and symbolical spirit of "Parsifal" as only a true artist could. The text is written by Mr. T. W. Rolleston, the translator of "Tannhäuser."

Nation and the Empire (The). By Lord Milner, G.C.B. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $3.

Lord Milner's services to the British Empire in Africa are too well known to require description in detail. In this volume are included speeches and addresses covering a period of sixteen years—that is, from the date of Lord Milner's appointment as High Commissioner for South Africa. Some of the papers would naturally have a stronger interest for English readers than for Americans, but many of them have an international breadth of treatment—in particular such chapters as that on National Service and Security and that on Empire Citizenship, to say nothing of the very thorough and illuminating introduction which takes up both at large and in particular the relation of British

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Imperial policy to British national policy, and which should be read by all who would understand the view of the English statesmen who think strongly and firmly as regards the mother country and its outlying territory. Lord Milner believes in the vitality of the Imperial movement, but believes also that it should be used, to quote his words, "to uphold our traditional principles of freedom, order, and justice, and to discharge with ever-increasing efficiency our duty as guardians of the more backward races who have come under our sway."

Panama and the Canal in Picture and Prose. By Willis J. Abbot. Syndicate Publishing Company, New York. $10 (de luxe edition); $5 (regular edition).

If we are not mistaken, this very large and elaborately illustrated volume includes the substance of many newspaper articles hitherto published. The entire story of Panama from the beginning is told, and the book covers a great deal more ground than the history and construction of the Canal itself. The work is written in a direct and graphic narrative style. The book may almost be described as monumental; and the title-page informs us that it is approved by leading officials connected with the great Canal enterprise. The illustration is remarkable, both in the comprehensiveness of the subjects covered and in the direct interest of the many photographs. There are a number of colored pictures which do not appeal to our taste very strongly.

Heart of Gaspé (The). By John Mason Clarke. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.

These sketches of a region in Canada little known to tourists, but well worth knowing both because of its remarkable scenic features and because of the antiquity of its civilization, are written by a careful observer. The interest in them is much heightened by the illustrations, which include two or three pictures of that extraordinary freak of nature Percé Rock, with its remarkable natural arch and its millions of water-birds. Gaspé is enormous in extent, not largely settled, chiefly made up as to population of scattered villages along the coast, and in these villages can be found a decided flavor and remnant of the old French settlement. It has just been reached by railway; but until lately travelers only occasionally landed from the St. Lawrence steamboats. Now it is more accessible, and many more travelers will find it worth while.

Publisher (The). By Robert Sterling Yard. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston. $1.

Mr. Yard's experience as a member of a well-known publishing firm and as an editor—our readers will remember that Mr. Yard has recently become the editor of the "Century Magazine"—insures interest in what he may have to say about what some pessimistic friend of his called "the worst business in the world." Mr. Yard discusses the things which make the business of publishing books difficult and those things which make it delightful. He talks about the relation of publishers and authors, the things that make a book sell, and other interesting problems. He ought to know a good book, for he certainly has written one; his little volume is crisp in style, often conversational in form, and, as Eugene Field used to say, "pointed as a tack."

Married Life of Queen Victoria (The). By Clare Jerrold. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $3.75.

The author in some way has acquired an intimate knowledge of the domestic side of Queen Victoria's life, especially in its earlier part. Some of the pictures of the royal household are both homely and amusing, as where, for instance, we read of the Prince Consort dismissing a nurse for talking baby talk ("What's my little popsy wopsy laughing at?") to the royal children, or when we see him going through the tutors' reports before luncheon and administering praise and blame, so that "it was no unusual thing for all the juveniles to be reduced to tears before the meal was over and to rise from the table hungry." Not all the contents of the book are of this trivial kind, but we must confess that there is a great deal that is of no value in estimating the personality of the Queen and her family, and there is a good deal that comes pretty near being silly. Physically the book is twice as large as it ought to be.

Threads of Grey and Gold. By Myrtle Reed. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.50.

Sketches, poems, and little essays by the author of "Lavender and Old Lace" and other stories which have certainly pleased many thousands of readers—the publishers say two millions; critics have smiled indulgently at these stories, as of no high creative value, but although gently over-sentimental they are not without a knowledge of character and a trace of humor. The present collection ranges from "Watching the New Year In" to "One Woman's Solution of the Servant Problem." Like Myrtle Reed's other books, this is published in dainty and pretty style. It is really a memorial of the author's life, and as such is welcome, but it is really excessive to call it "a literary tapestry in which have been harmoniously blended the glittering vibrations of joy that run threadlike through our lives and the crepuscular greys that act as a contrast."

Real Democracy (The). By J. E. F. Mann, N. J. Sievers, and R. W. T. Cox. Longmans, Green & Co., New York. $1.50.

With the doctrine of this volume The Outlook is in hearty sympathy—the doctrine that the economic evils of our time are largely due to the concentration of wealth and can be cured only by the better distribution of wealth; and that this better distribution of wealth can be accomplished only through voluntary, industrial, wealth-owning associations. This is industrial

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democracy, equally opposed to capitalism on the one hand and to State Socialism on the other; but the book gives altogether too large a proportion of space to the historical discussion and altogether too little to a consideration of practical measures to be pursued in the "process of repossession." Indeed, the methods proposed seem to us ludicrously inadequate for the end which is sought.

Royal Castles of England. By Henry C. Shelley. L. C. Page & Co., Boston. $3.

This volume carries on a series of books about famous old castles in many countries. Mr. Shelley is well known as a descriptive writer and has brought together facts, legends, and traditions about a large number of ancient strongholds, some well known by name to every one; of many others most Americans at least have never heard. There are, of course, numerous photographs.

Quakers in Great Britain and America (The). By Charles F. Holder. A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago. $6.

This cumbrous volume is really two volumes in one, and the reader will wish that it had been so printed. Apart from this physical criticism, the work deserves high praise, because it is a thorough study of the three centuries of religious and political history of the Society of Friends. Few Americans, for instance, realize what an important part the followers of George Fox played in England during Puritan and Restoration times. Mr. Holder is a practiced writer and tells the story simply and clearly. We note particularly as graphic narrative the chapter on the martyrdom of the Quakers in this country. Many well-printed portraits add to the value of the book.

Short History of Art (A). By Julia B. De Forest. Dodd, Mead & Co., New York. $3.

Mr. Charles H. Caffin, whose work as an art critic and a writer on art subjects is so well known, has revised, edited, and largely rewritten the "Short History of Art" by Julia B. De Forest, which in its original and smaller form has long been a standard work of record. Beyond question this treatment of the book has more than doubled its value, and it can be cordially commended as a popular handbook on the subject. There are scores of full-page half-tone reproductions of art photographs.

THE READER'S VIEW

A STEP TOWARDS CHURCH FEDERATION IN A SMALL TOWN

Fairview, Brown County, Kansas, is a place of four hundred people, with three churches, Reformed, Congregational, and Baptist. The membership of the three is over four hundred, something more than half from the country. Two years ago last summer they held union open-air services during July and August. The following winter they held union evangelistic services for a month. A year ago union services were again held during the summer, and at their close it was agreed to hold one union Sunday evening service a month in addition to the usual union meetings on Thanksgiving, Memorial Sunday, etc. In the summer just past the union open-air services were better attended and more interesting, and as they were about to close, the three churches at their morning services each voted unanimously—some who were opposed or doubtful refraining from voting—to continue union services in the churches, taken in order, till the first of January, at which time the further continuance of them is to be decided at the annual meetings of the churches.

To the pastors of the town this is a welcome solution of the Sunday evening problem, as the congregations at the union summer services last year and this year have been larger than the sum of the average congregations in the three separate services; and also, and especially, it seems like a long, yet easy and natural, step toward church federation which might be taken in very many small towns. CHESTER M. CLARK,

Pastor Congregational Church.

ENGLAND'S POVERTY AND ITS CAUSES

In the August number of the "Fortnightly Review" for the current year is an unusually interesting article by J. Ellis Barker bearing the title "Great Britain's Poverty and Its Causes," in which he proposes to show that Great Britain relatively is a poor nation and to account for the causes of her poverty. In this article he points out and liberally quotes from statements made by various authorities, including Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, Sir Charles Booth, Mr. Roundtree, Samuel Gompers, Sidney Webb, and Booker T. Washington, that "approximately thirty per cent of the population lives on the verge of hunger, and that the majority of these unfortunate people do not consist of idlers, loafers, shirkers, tramps, and professional beggars, for whom one needs, perhaps, not have much sympathy, but of workers engaged in wealth-producing industries." He undertakes to show that a vast pro-

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portion of the English workingmen receive a wage below a living wage, and that living wage one which allows nothing for the luxuries of life, but only for the needs of a bare physical subsistence.'

But the main point of this article, and the important one, is that wherein he holds that the cause does not lie in the inability of the English as workingmen nor their lack of industry, but solely in the fact of their lack of power to utilize machinery as is done in the United States, primarily, and secondarily in Germany. He produces a table dealing with twenty-six important trades, and compares the United Kingdom and the United States in these five details: Production per Year, Number of Wage-earners, Horse-power Employed, Horse-power per Thousand Wage-earners, Value of Production per Wage-earner per Year. Without going into detail, I may state, in his own words, that, "measured by value, the American industries produce as a rule not a little less than twice as much, but from three times to five times as much as does this country, averaging four times as much." Further, he goes on to say that this is accomplished, although the number of their workers (referring to the United Kingdom) is only slightly larger, and is sometimes smaller, than the number of workers employed in the United States. He therefore draws the conclusion that, no matter what efforts are made to ameliorate the condition there, whether the factory be run upon capitalistic, Socialistic, profit-sharing, or copartnership principles, or whatever may be accomplished by way of social legislation, it will not alter the fact that a nation receiving £2,000,000,000 a year cannot pay to its workmen the wage of a nation whose income is four times that amount. And he adds that Great Britain's yearly income of £100,000,000 from foreign investments and £60,000,000 from merchant marine is a mere bagatelle in comparison. He therefore holds that the supreme interest for the English people, compared with which all other tasks, such as are at present engaging the attention of Parliament, are as nothing relatively, is to reconstruct their productive system.

There is plenty of evidence to support Mr. Barker's contention as to the inefficiency of the English factory. There is plenty of evidence, too, that the commercial supremacy of the world rests in the intelligent use of machinery, and that the "power of the purse" is the compressed power which, rightly or wrongly directed, ruins or creates. The writer was recently in Pittsburgh and visited two large establishments that deal in the production of iron and its constructions. In one of these he learned the extraordinary fact that in one of them, employing thousands of workmen, eighty per cent of the work was done by unskilled labor, made extraordinarily productive by reason of the fact that it could be taught to manipulate machines in but a few days; and one of the workmen, a skilled mechanic, said that he failed to see the justice of his being denied more than three dollars and a half a day, when people largely ignorant of our language and usages, foreigners, could often earn more, because through the machines they could become, as he called them, "producers." Nothing could be more significant than to witness in one of the great rolling-mills scores of traveling cranes of prodigious power moving about as though endowed with life, trip-hammers with a forging power of a hundred tons' stroke, a single mill turning out finished iron approximating eight hundred tons a day, the continuous process, one might say, of iron passing, "without haste, without rest," from raw material lying in mine and quarry to its final destination in buildings, machines, and tools; and, with it all, men not seeming to work hard, although often amidst great heat and deafening noise. And he who has ever stood on the docks where the iron ore of the Northwest is discharged and seen ten thousand tons of ore delivered from the hold of the vessel into cars or into stock in four hours can well understand the general proposition of Mr. Barker.

But he can also understand that in these conditions lies the hope of reducing the long hours of labor, and also the necessity of so educating the common workman that he may employ the hours of leisure so as intelligently to study the great economic and spiritual laws by which human life has advanced, and so save himself from becoming the dupe and the tool of the demagogue who is made dangerous by the combination of equal ignorance and great selfishness.

F. TREUDLEY.

Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

SUGAR BUGABOOS

I do not doubt the sincerity of those who speak so dolefully about free sugar. In all probability the planters of Louisiana will find means to grow more sugar on an acre than they have been doing and will make more money than ever, just as Texas has with cotton since the boll weevil came. The cheap labor in the West Indies is a mere bugaboo. Cultivation is cheaper here; mule labor costs less than a third of the price of Negro labor there. The hands working in the *usines* are certainly cheap, but they are a small portion of the laborers employed on a sugar estate. The only advantage West Indian planters have is that they have no high tariff. Consequently they can get American machinery for sixty per cent of what is paid in Louisiana. The Sugar Trust is another bugaboo. If the powers that be let it alone and it tries on such tricks as predicted, Europe would be delighted to do some more refining and undersell it.

H. E. BULLOCK.

Vienna, Georgia.

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MANY INVENTIONS

WHEN WILL THE WORLD'S COAL GIVE OUT

Those who fear that coal will hold out only a short time may be reassured by the recent exhaustive treatment of the subject by Leon Dominian, a delegate of the American Geographical Society to the International Geographical Congress, as stated in the New York "Times." He describes the minuteness with which an international inquiry the world over has been carried on. It will show as to this country that in its more accessible coal-fields there are 327,000 miles of the fields, with 2,000 billion tons of coal. Eight other countries total over 500 billion tons. But another great future source of supply may be Asia—Africa and South America have little coal. Mr. Dominian says: "The Chinese Republic is known to contain vast reserves of the precious fuel. This supply has been estimated at 1,500,000,000,000 tons. There is no doubt that the occurrence of the mineral is destined to play an important part in its future destinies. This in view of the fact that the Chinese coal will not only suffice for the country's requirements, but will also be exported in large quantities. Specifically it may be surmised that our Pacific seaboard will constitute in time one of its natural outlets." And these billions of tons are only part of the supply awaiting the energy of man to become available.

THE CAPE COD CANAL

The great undertaking which will cut a road through Cape Cod and save seventy miles of distance as between New York and Boston, has already been described in The Outlook. The question is often asked, "How is the work progressing?" An immensely interesting article in the "Scientific American" tells. We quote briefly:

The work of the hydraulic dredges has been supplemented by steam shovels, and the contractors have got such a good grip on the work that on August 1, 1913, there remained only 4,500,000 cubic yards of excavation to be done. During June and July of this year material has been taken out at the rate of 400,000 cubic yards per month, and it is expected that this rate of progress will be increased until the winter necessitates some slowing down. If all goes fairly well, it is expected that the excavation will be completed by July 1, 1914. The detail finishing up which must be done before the canal is thrown open for operation will be completed by the following November. The dredging of the four-mile approach in the navigable waters of Buzzards Bay is done, and the breakwater at the eastern end in Barnstable Bay, which contains about 400,000 tons of granite, is practically completed. . . . The completed canal will be illuminated throughout on the street-lighting plan, and it will contain the various aids to navigation, these being of the most modern type. Navigation will be easy; for it is well understood abroad, where canal navigation is common, that steaming through a lighted and comparatively narrow channel, where the banks are well defined, is safer than steaming from one bright lighthouse to the next through uncertain intervening shoals.

THE CONCRETE ROAD

The case in favor of the concrete as contrasted with the macadam road is strongly put in the following letter from a correspondent of The Outlook:

There has been evolved by the Board of Road Commissioners of Wayne County, Michigan, Edward N. Hines, Chairman, a highway that has cost for maintenance during the past five years less than $5 per mile per year. A striking illustration of the economic significance of this achievement is as follows: Let it be assumed that we are to build 500 miles of ordinary stone or macadam highway and 500 miles of the Michigan type of road, the work to be done at the rate of 100 miles a year during a period of five years, and that repairs will not be required on either type of road for two years. Beginning, then, at the third year, and estimating maintenance costs for the Michigan road at $25 per mile per year, which, it will be noted, is five times more than it has really cost, the total maintenance costs on 500 miles of this road would, at the expiration of seven years, be only $37,500. In the case of macadam, basing costs on the New York and New Jersey figures, which have exceeded $900 per mile per year, repair costs would reach the enormous total of $1,350,000.

This amazing difference ceases to be astounding, however, when the construction of the Michigan type of road is explained. It is a simple proceeding, unattended with secrecy or patents, a precedent every community is at liberty to follow. It can best be explained in this way: Suppose we were to pour over a highway a molten mass of bronze, and that it could be so controlled as to settle into the required contour of a road some six inches thick. It would last forever. The stress of tons would be negligible. The Wayne County road builders poured over the previously shaped and rolled roadbed a wet and mushy mass of cement, sand, and stone, which hardened into imperishable rock. Just before it hardened the surface was broomed from side to side to give a texture that keeps horses and motor cars from slipping. These roads can of themselves accumulate neither mud nor dust. They improve with age, a characteristic of concrete known to every engineer and chemist.

The Romans built roads that have lasted for centuries. Scientists discovered that their extreme durability lay in their binding material. Instead of holding their roads together with clay, rock-dust, and other easily displaced binding material, such as we use on macadam roads, the Romans used puzzolan, a form of cement

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that has also kept intact through centuries their wonderful buildings. The same principle governs the construction of the Michigan type of road. In Bellefontaine, Ohio, they tried cement as a binder eighteen years ago, notwithstanding its then high cost, and the result has been that the Bellefontaine road during that long period has cost only $25 per mile per year for repairs.

In an address delivered in the city of Pittsburgh in December, 1912, before an audience of engineers, architects, and builders, Mr. Hines made the following statement: "With more than sixty miles of concrete road in Wayne County, some of it in its fourth year, we have spent less than $300 on its surface for maintenance, and this is what makes this type of road the cheapest of all good roads."

FOREST NOTES

Among the recent notes sent out by the Forest Service are these:

It has been discovered that the waste from dogwood shuttle-blocks can profitably be made into handles for steel knives and forks.

Contrary to popular belief, forest fires seldom travel more than two or three miles an hour. Even in extreme cases it is questionable whether they burn at a rate of more than six to ten miles an hour.

Uncle Sam's forest rangers require that permanent camp sites within the forests shall be kept in sanitary condition. The ubiquitous tin can must be buried and waste paper burned when a camp is left.

More than 3,000 small logging operators now buy National forest timber; at least 25,000 persons—settlers, miners, stockmen, and others—obtain timber from Uncle Sam's big wood lot for their own use free of charge.

A SEARCH FOR FRIENDLY BUGS

"Bug eat bug" seems to be the motto of the modern scientific farmer. Mr. Guy E. Mitchell, in the "Technical World Magazine," thus tells how it is proposed to fight the greatest enemy of citrus-growers:

Another friendly bug is about to be imported "duty free" by our Government for the purpose of saving the orange industry from the ravages of a pest, the citrus white fly. The new importation is a ladybug.

The orange and lemon white fly, a small, insignificant-appearing insect, has caused millions of dollars of loss to citrus-growers in Florida and other Gulf States, while the California growers are in terror lest it spread from the localities where it has gained a foothold. Thousands of dollars have been expended by the Federal and State Governments and by individuals during the past twelve or fifteen years in attempting to eradicate or control this pest. However, their efforts have met with only partial success. The latest and most interesting attempt to combat this real enemy of the United States is the search which has been instituted throughout the Orient to discover and import a natural enemy, an insect which will prey upon the white fly and keep it within bounds. This friendly bug has been found; it is none other than a cousin of the ladybug, and it only remains to import the tiny madam and turn her and her voracious children loose upon the wicked fly.

The determination to search for a natural enemy of the white fly was arrived at only after field tests and spraying experiments for its control had failed. After visiting Spain, Italy, Ceylon, India, China, and the East Indies, the searcher found the citrus white fly in India and China infesting orange trees, but kept entirely in check by its natural enemy, Madam *Cryptognatha Flavescenta*, a modest ladybug who delights in chewing up the young of the white fly. She was assisted by Master *Prospaltella Lahorensis*, an internal parasite who is extremely fond of the juicy insides of the white fly. Working together in complete harmony, these two nice bugs make the existence of the white fly so entirely miserable that he has no terrors at all for the orange and lemon growers of the Oriental countries where he ekes out a precarious existence.

PILE-DRIVING WITH DYNAMITE

A new type of concrete pile, which would seem to have little merit except the novel way in which it is planted by explosive force, has been put on the market by the Siegwart Company, of Lucerne, Switzerland. The new pile utilizes the bulged bottom principle common to several patented piles, but is novel in that the enlarged base is formed by the use of explosives. The process of making the pile is described as follows:

An iron tube containing a wooden pile with an iron point and a device at the upper end for deadening the blows of the pile-driver is driven into the ground. The wooden pile is then removed and the cartridge, provided with an electrical detonator, is fixed in position at the bottom of the hole, and the tube is filled with wet concrete, a little above the level of the surface of the ground outside the tube. The iron tube is then drawn up some feet to prevent its end from being shattered by the force of the explosion. After the detonation the concrete sinks downwards, filling up the space hollowed out by the explosion. Finally the tube is little by little filled with more concrete, and is drawn up gradually at the same rate as the concrete is filled into it.

After the completion of this process, and after sufficient time has been allowed for the hardening of the concrete, there is in position in the ground a pile with a base of greater lateral diameter than it is possible to produce by any other means. Moreover, on account of the action of the gas formed by explosion, these piles will give the best possible results in compressing the earth. In fact, one pile on this system serves the purpose of several piles on any other system, thus insuring a great economy. By using cartridges of greater or less strength the size of the excavation made by the gas is controlled at will; by the use of a cartridge 600 to 700 grams in weight there is, for instance, made a spherical hollow of 3 to 4 feet in diameter, according to the quality of the ground material.—*Engineering News.*

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BY THE WAY

A curious feature of the fire that devastated Hot Springs, Arkansas, recently, was, according to newspaper despatches, the fact that the bath-houses which administer the water that has made the city famous were almost all unharmed. The city's most substantial asset, therefore, remains, and a new and better-built town will doubtless rise from its ashes.

"A Woman," writing to one of the papers about the Wallingford railway wreck, suggests that one or two empty wooden cars be put at the end of each train to act as a buffer when the inevitable crash comes. The suggestion is made seriously, but its impracticability brings to mind the proposal of the other woman who asked the conductor what part of the train was the most dangerous. "The rear car," was the answer. "Then why not leave it off?"

The New York City Directory for 1913 contains approximately 580,000 names, as against 569,000 last year. Chicago's new Directory is reported to contain nearly 1,000,000 names, an increase of 62,000. New York's Directory, however, is for only two of the five boroughs of which the city is composed.

The common belief that the shark must turn on his back before he can bite his foe is controverted by a writer in the "Wide World Magazine." The shark may occasionally assume this attitude in eating from a piece of meat suspended from a line, the writer says, but "to regard this as characteristic is as unreasonable as to class similarly the antics of a man trying to take a bite from an apple on a string at a Hallowe'en party." Writers and illustrators of shark stories please take notice.

"I have said, and I say it again, and will repeat it till there's no more breath left to say it, that the man or woman who works with actual hands on vital labor, and still keeps a keen, clear mind and a taste for what is good in life, morals, the arts, politics, and literature, is just a notch higher in development than the man or woman who, being broadly intelligent, even greatly accomplished, still does not perform manual labor." This is not an extract from Tolstoy, but from the "Ladies' Home Journal." Ladies who have ears to hear this, let them hear.

The Legislature of Iowa at its last session provided for trade school engineering courses at the State college at Ames. These courses, which will fit pupils for practical work in cement products, road-making, power plants, and the application of electricity, will be open to any young man with a common-school education.

Brethren, Church of the Brethren, River Brethren—who shall decide as to their status among the Dunkards? A subscriber writes to correct a statement made in The Outlook of August 30 by a correspondent who wished to correct a statement made in the "Christian Register" as to the Dunkards of Lordsburg, California. Our latest correspondent says that the River Brethren are not Dunkards at all, but Mennonites. The Church of the Brethren, he adds, which is a Dunkard sect, does have paid ministers, contrary to the impression of our first correspondent.

In winning the amateur championship of the United States in golf at Garden City, Long Island, on September 6, J. D. Travers provided an illustration of that characteristic of the game that renders it particularly alluring—the occasional "close call" that comes even to the expert. Those who participate in the "match play" of this tournament are confined to the thirty-two players who survive a preliminary test of "medal play." In the medal play Mr. Travers barely succeeded in qualifying, being saved only by a single stroke. There was some little defect in his play; this he speedily corrected, and then proceeded to defeat all his opponents.

Mrs. F. L. Stevens, Professor of Home Economics in the University of Porto Rico, writes in the "General Federation Magazine" that instruction in home economics has been heartily welcomed in the island, and that the Legislature has made an appropriation for extension work of this character during the next school year.

Oscar Hammerstein, the well-known operatic impresario, is, says the "Dramatic Mirror," slowly recovering from a severe illness which has disarranged his plans as to his new East Side opera-house. His illness has resulted, says the "Mirror," in his employing a typist, for the first time in his amazing career, "though Oscar still writes the majority of his letters with his own hand."

The get-together idea in industrialism was happily illustrated recently when the Omaha Typographical Union invited two employing printers to attend one of its meetings and address its members. Employers are by no means all "exploiters," and if they can have the opportunity occasionally to present some of their problems to their workmen nothing but good can result. In this case the problem discussed was the "cost system."

Has the digestion of Americans improved since the days when we were warned that we were becoming a nation of dyspeptics? Recipes such as this, which we find in an exchange, would in former days have been taboo, but now nobody seems to object to such combinations: "Split bananas in two lengthwise; spread thick jam, jelly, or preserves between the slices like a sandwich; pour over a custard sauce and pile a heap of whipped cream or meringue on top; sprinkle chopped nuts, grated cocoanut or

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chocolate or candied cherries over it." This reads well, but dyspeptics, if there are any left, had better beware!

A French physician regards as "a troublesome legend" the belief that modern bullets inflict less serious wounds than the balls or slugs of our ancestors. Severe wounds, he maintains, are now much more frequent than of old, though really slight wounds heal more quickly. There is, he says, an increasing proportion of mortal to non-mortal wounds; thus, in the Franco-German War the Germans lost 10 men killed to every 58 wounded, while in the Russo-Japanese War the Japanese lost 10 men killed to every 37 wounded.

"Near the summit of one of the highest ridges in the wilds of Pike County, Pennsylvania," says the New York "Sun," "is a growth of huckleberry bushes, covering an acre or so, the fruit of which is white. So far as is known, there is but one other place that produces white huckleberries—a similar area in Sussex County, New Jersey." White strawberries, and, we believe, white blackberries, are occasionally found growing wild—sports of nature somewhat akin to albinos in the human race.

The Rev. Mark Guy Pearse is credited with the story of a curate who, preaching about Zacchæus, said that the tree he got up represented "the Church." Next day one of his hearers said, "I was very much interested in your sermon yesterday: I was listenin' very attentive for what you didn't say." "Oh, and what might the application be that has occurred to you?" "Why, Zacchæus had to come down out of that tree before he could go with the Lord."

A New York playwright, dissatisfied with the reception of his latest play by the newspaper critics, advertises that he will give back the money of any spectator who does not like his play. Further, he says, "I shall be happy to entertain as my guest any theater-goer who feels reluctant to pay for a ticket." Could anything be fairer? Now if the play only had a somewhat less mushy title than "Kiss Me Quick"!

At the recent Convention of the International Association of Fire Engineers Mr. F. M. Griswold, General Insurance Inspector of New York, said: "Instead of sympathizing with one who has had a fire the public should hold him personally responsible until he proves himself innocent of any blame. That is the system in Europe, and the result is that there are few fires which can be traced to firebugs."

That early voyager who named the greatest of rivers the Amazon has a tardy vindication in the recent explorations of Dr. Hamilton Rice, F.R.G.S., of Boston. Dr. Rice, in ascending some of the tributaries of the Amazon River, found communities almost wholly composed of women, who are said to live alone for long periods. At stated times men are permitted to visit them, but ordinarily they dwell apart, like the Amazons of tradition.

Why do ladies invariably take off their rings in hotel lavatories and lay them on the washstand while they wash their hands—and then go off and forget them? The latest instance of this feminine practice to get into the newspapers concerns the loss, in a New York hotel, of a ring valued at $20,000. Why doesn't some one invent a ring-holder, to be attached to the dress, that would checkmate this expensive habit?

Pensacola, Florida, it is stated, now has more miles of paved streets and sidewalks than any other city of its size in the South. During the past three years its citizens have taxed themselves $100 per capita for municipal improvements.

Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst, temporarily released from Holloway Jail—on what should be called, we suppose, "cat and mouse" parole, though in former days such released prisoners were said to be out on "ticket of leave"—is to visit America next month—if the immigration authorities permit her landing. She was serving a three years' sentence for conspiracy.

Sir Thomas Lawrence, according to his recent biographer Sir Walter Armstrong, was the most procrastinating of artists. "Now and then he allowed as many as twelve or fourteen years to elapse between the first and last touches on a portrait. It must have been trying to the most long-suffering to have their portraits put aside for years, after the first sitting—and the first payment!—only to be taken up again, in many cases, after the sitters had grown from youth to middle age." The great popularity of the painter, however, and his imperturbability as to hostile criticism, forced the victims of these delays to suffer with resignation.

The Kaiser Friedrich Museum in Berlin, in Sir Walter Armstrong's opinion, in an aside about the value of art collections to a great city, has been raised by Dr. Bode "from the third to the first rank among European galleries."

Women cab-drivers in Paris are not so popular now as they were some years ago, when there were about one hundred in all; there are said now to be not more than half a dozen. Probably the difficulty of driving a cab through the ruck of vehicles that always fills the streets of Paris has influenced the public in favor of the masculine Jehu.

A new gem recently discovered in the German African colonies has been named heliodore. It has attracted the admiration of Emperor William, and may become fashionable through royal patronage if not by reason of its own merits. The peculiarity of the stone is that it changes its color, like the chameleon, with its environment—being a golden yellow by day and green in artificial light.

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